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ABSTRACT

A longitudinal study of 2,378 Australian teenagers from their ninth year in school in 1980 until 1983 provided data on the significance of part-time employment in young people's transition from school to the world of work. Those studied were attending 26 different secondary schools in Australia's Victoria State in 1980 when data were first collected. Many had left school by 1981 and 1983 when subsequent data collections were made. Interviews were conducted in 1983 with 30 of those surveyed and with 48 other secondary students as well. The study considered part-time youth employment in the light of the potentially interrelated influences of family, school, and work, other economic and social forces, and the social and personal development of young people as well. The purpose was to generate information that could assist in youth policy development. Six basic areas were investigated: the nature of part-time work undertaken by youths; the characteristics of young part-time workers; the reasons young people work; and the impact of part-time work on career development, social and personal development, and school-to-work transition. The report discusses the study methodology, the study results, and implications of the findings. (PGD)

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PART-TIME WORK AND YOUTH IN TRANSITION

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Victorian Institute of Secondary Education

July 1984

A Report of a Research Project supported by a Grant from the Commonwealth
Department of Education and Youth Affairs, Canberra

The views expressed in this report do not necessarily represent the views of
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THE VALUE OF INVESTIGATING PART-TIME WORK

This is a study about young people undertaking part-time work and its relevance to youth in transition. Part-time work is an issue of growing importance, not only to the structure of the contemporary Australian labour market and its underlying economic conditions, but also to our contemporary systems of education, training and employment. The present study may be viewed within a broad context incorporating these important facets of Australian society; facets which shape the present and future lives of young people in terms of their education and employment options, as well as their personal and social identities. As such, the study adopts the perspective that work should not be viewed in isolation from educational and social development, or as a separate function in the lives of people, especially the educational lives of young people.

Traditionally, education and employment have been viewed as two separate, chronological phases in the transition of young people from youth to adulthood. This separation has reinforced an increasing segmentation of these social institutions with respect to their spheres of operation. Given the economic realities of contemporary western society the segmentation of education and employment no longer seems appropriate. An appreciation of the changed importance of work to the lives of young people needs to be established through reference to both the short-term and longer term changes in the structure of education, the structural characteristics of the Australian labour market and the value of work to contemporary youth.

The extensive participation of a large and growing proportion of young people attending school in the part-time work force, is a relatively new phenomenon in Australia. It appears that young people now increasingly find themselves, whether by personal choice or societal or familial need, undertaking some form of employment during their school careers. As Sweet (1980a) has pointed out, the involvement of teenagers in part-time work was Australia's fastest growing employment indicator in the 1970s and was a significant and largely unnoticed change in the teenage labour market. However, as indicated in Chapter 2, there has been relatively little analysis of the nature and extent of this participation and of the role which part-time work plays in the transition of youth to adulthood. This is somewhat surprising in view of the widespread belief among politicians, economists and educators that teenagers benefit through participation in the part-time work labour force (e.g. Beswick *et al.*, 1983; Gregory and Duncan, 1980; Karmel, 1979; Viner, 1979).

Several proposals to combine part-time work and schooling have been considered by education authorities in NSW and the ACT, and by the Commonwealth Schools Commission. Such proposals have been based on the contention that young people are dissatisfied with present schooling practices and seek "real world" roles in the world of work. In the words of one proponent of combined work and school programs, 'Work experience would be replaced by the real thing and it would replace the present tainted transition education scheme with a real transition in life' (Daily Telegraph, 18/3/83: 1).

The significance of a study investigating the relevance of part-time work to youth transition, especially for young people engaged in full-time education, is evidenced by the fact that 'about one-fifth of senior students at school and about one-sixth of all teenagers are employed part-time' (Anderson, 1983a). Further, it has been reported that in 1981, full-time students accounted for 75 percent of the teenage part-time labour force (Paterson and Mackay, 1982).

The central theme of this study was to identify the role of part-time work in the transition process of young people from school to work (or youth to adulthood). The study attempted this with the recognition that there has been a call to facilitate the transition process (e.g. OECD, 1977; Commonwealth Schools Commission, 1980) and that demands have been placed on schools for structuring an education system which is congruent with the forces operating in the labour market. This has been illustrated by recent policy considerations of "youth guarantee" which have been based on the notion that employment and education authorities should provide guaranteed work, schooling or a combination of both to all youth up to age 18 (e.g. OECD, 1977). However, the question remains, "Does present part-time work offer a valuable model in this respect?". This question is taken up in Chapter 6 of this report.

What is known about the part-time work phenomenon has been largely derived from an economic-based approach to research. This approach, often using official labour force data, stresses the restructuring of the economy, the creation of jobs especially suited to school-going teenagers, a shortage of labour, youth wage levels and the restrictions on earnings of unemployment benefit recipients. While economists generally believe that part-time work is not a satisfactory substitute for the lessened availability of full-time work (e.g. Gregory and Stricker, 1981), little attention appears to have been given to the experiences of young part-time workers in ways that readily provide relevant information for the network of issues circumscribed by "youth policy".

An alternative research orientation may be termed a "transition approach". This orientation to studying the part-time work phenomenon attempts to focus on the complex interplay of sociological and social psychological factors related to participation in the part-time labour force. It attempts to integrate the potential influences of family, school and work while recognising both the impact of economic and other structural forces of our society and the social and personal development of young people. While the economic approach is necessary, a transition approach enables attention to be directed to the interactions between young people and social institutions within an economic context.

Obviously it is not feasible to conduct a research study which fully addresses all of the significant social issues relating to part-time work. Nevertheless, in adopting a transition approach this study goes some way to enabling a broader interpretation of these issues and encourages their translation into specific policies which pay due regard to the experiences, roles and contributions of youth in our society. Accordingly, this research may have relevance to education, employment and other social policies that affect the lives of youth. To undertake the transition approach, however, is methodologically problematic, in that it attempts to both locate and address the issues in a way which develops a holistic perspective about young people in society.

This report attempts such an integrated approach through the use of data obtained in a longitudinal panel study of Victorian secondary school students (N = 2378), stratified to be representative of the State's Year 9 student population in 1980. As described in Chapter 3, these data were first collected in 1980 when the panel attended Year 9 in various secondary schools (26 schools) and subsequently in 1981 and 1983 when the panel were both attending and not attending secondary school. The survey conducted in 1983 identified a group of young people in the panel who were engaged in part-time work (N=338).

Included in the longitudinal data base is information pertaining to family socio-economic background, gender, family ethnicity, geographic location, type of school attended, occupational aspirations, parental educational expectations, educational attainment, employment status and characteristics of part-time work undertaken by panel members. These data permit between-group comparisons of full-time workers, part-time workers and those of the panel not employed in

1983. Consequently, the study was able to examine several possible antecedents (e.g. individual, family and school characteristics) of the panel's employment status when they were about 17 years of age. The analyses, which are addressed in Chapter 4, provide for discussion of part-time work (by young people) and are linked to the processes of transition.

Following the 1983 administration of the longitudinal panel survey, a sample of 30 young people were interviewed. These interviews, discussed in Chapter 5, were designed to gather information about part-time work from both in-school and out-of-school part-time workers. In particular, these interviews provided information about the nature and characteristics of part-time work, reasons for movement into the part-time labour force and the costs and benefits of such participation for young people.

The 1983 administration provided information about part-time work for a group of young people who were about 17 years of age. In an effort to investigate whether findings from these interviews hold for different age groups, 48 interviews were also conducted with Year 9 to 11 students. These data are briefly discussed in Chapter 5.

The emphasis of this study was an investigation of part-time work as a youth transition experience. Both the survey and interview data were used to undertake a preliminary examination of a number of key issues regarding part-time work by young people. Generally stated, the major research questions investigated were:

1. What is the nature of part-time work undertaken by youth?
2. What are the characteristics of youth who make up the part-time labour force?
3. Why do young people engage in part-time work?
4. Does part-time work facilitate occupational career development?
5. Does part-time work fulfill a useful social/personal development function?
6. What is the role of part-time work in the transition from school to work?

1.1 Definition of part-time work

At the outset, it must be emphasised that paid part-time employment is defined for this report in the same manner as that which applies to Australian Bureau of Statistics data on the labour force. According to the Explanatory Notes attached to its regular publication The Labour Force, Australia (Catalogue 6203.0 and 6204.0):

'Full-time workers are those who usually work 35 hours a week or more and others who, although they usually work less than 35 hours a week, worked 35 hours or more during the survey week. Part-time workers are those who usually work less than 35 hours a week and who did so during the survey week'.

This definition has been adopted in this report, although it is recognised that widely diverging degrees of part-time work are covered by the definition. In addition, the category of "Not Employed" which has been used in this report includes those young people who were in education and not employed (either part-time or full-time) and those young people who were not in education or employment. As indicated in Chapter 4, the vast majority of young people in the "Not Employed" category (about 80%) were attending educational institutions. This category also includes those who are not employed and are actively seeking work (who are the subject of generally used unemployment statistics) and those who are not employed and not actively seeking work (who are classified as nonparticipants in the labour force).

CHAPTER 2

PART-TIME WORK: ITS NATURE, SIGNIFICANCE AND EFFECTS

Until the late 1970s, little Australian research literature concerning part-time work had been available. The lack of such research was most probably due to the relative insignificance of youth part-time work with respect to the structure of the youth labour market in Australia. However, given the present incidence of part-time work in the community - almost one in four male youth and one in three female youth (aged 15-19) were employed on a part-time basis in 1983 (1) - it would appear that youth involvement in part-time work has become an issue requiring comprehensive research and deserving of subsequent policy considerations.

Recent literature suggests three major areas for investigation:

- (i) the extent and nature of participation in part-time work;
- (ii) the factors (both individual and structural) associated with participation in the part-time labour force;
- (iii) the contribution of part-time work to young people's educational, occupational and personal development.

2.1 The growth of part-time work for youth

Part-time work is an issue of importance to the structure and organisation of the contemporary labour market and to the systems of education and social welfare. During the 1970s, part-time employment among young people grew rapidly while full-time employment prospects declined. For example, the data provided in Table 2.1 point to the growing incidence of part-time work for young people in Australia. In 1970 only 9 percent of male teenagers who were working were employed on a part-time basis, and by 1980 this proportion had doubled to almost 18 percent. For females the rise was even greater, from 7 percent in 1970 to 27 percent in 1980.

1. These figures have been taken from Youth Policies, Programs and Issues, prepared by the Department of Education and Youth Affairs, Canberra, 1983 and were derived from the monthly labour force survey of the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS).

TABLE 2.1
Full-Time/Part-Time Employment of Teenagers, 1970 to 1980
(Data relates to August of each year)

	Males 15-19 years	Females 15-19 years
<u>Full-Time Employment</u>		
('000 persons)		
1970	296.1	278.4
1975	281.2	240.0
1980	287.8	219.6
<u>Part-Time Employment</u>		
('000 persons)		
1970	28.2	20.8
1975	43.2	51.2
1980	62.3	81.3
<u>Total Employment</u>		
('000 persons)		
1970	324.3	299.2
1975	324.4	291.2
1980	350.1	300.9
<u>Proportion of Employment</u> <u>which is Part-Time (percent)</u>		
1970	9	7
1975	13	18
1980	18	27

Source: ABS The Labour Force, Catalogue 6204.0

Data describing full-time and part-time employment of Victorian teenagers are not available for the entire period covered by the Australian data described in Table 2.1. However, data available for Victoria since October 1980 indicate that part-time work has accounted for at least a slight increase in the proportion of work undertaken by young people (28 percent in October 1983, compared with 26 percent in 1980).

Nationally, Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) data indicate that the teenage labour market has undergone profound changes over the past ten years. First, teenage unemployment rates after rising steadily from 1966, increased rapidly from 1975 and in October 1982, 18 percent of 15-19 year olds and 12 percent of 20-24 year olds were unemployed compared with slightly more than 5 percent of those aged over 25 years. Second, after a period of rising school participation rates, which varied between school systems and between states, the male school participation rate declined from 1972, whereas the female rate continued to rise. There is now a higher proportion of females than males attending school. Third, there has been a rapid growth in part-time employment for youth, especially young women. Part-time work for teenagers expanded despite the onset of the economic slow-down in 1974, and between 1974 and 1978 part-time employment of young people grew by 16 percent each year (Gregory and Stricker, 1981).

In addition, there is a tendency for teenagers to be concurrently enrolled in school on a full-time basis and also members of the labour force. In 1971, approximately 4 percent of 15-19 year olds were both attending school full-time and members of the labour force. By 1981, this figure was estimated at 17 percent; in 1971 school students made up 28 percent of teenage part-time workers, whereas by 1981 the proportion had risen to 58 percent. Significantly, as Paterson and Mackay (1982) note, the increase of school students working part-time accounted for 71 percent of the increase in overall youth part-time employment in this period. The Bureau of Labour Market Research (BLMR) estimates that, during this period, the proportion of students who were engaged in full-time education and in the labour force rose from 5 percent to 27 percent; in 1981, 75 percent of the teenage part-time labour force were full-time students and 85 percent of full-time students who were employed were engaged in part-time work (Paterson and Mackay, 1982; CTEC, 1982).

Further, between 1971 and 1979 male students increased their share of part-time jobs in the labour market from 39 to 63 percent, while female students increased their share from 28 to 62 percent (Stricker and Sheehan, 1981). Clearly, the

rapid increase in the extent of part-time work during the 1970s is associated with an increase in the participation of young people, in particular those engaged in education. However, despite an increase in the number of young people participating in part-time work, the hours worked by students accounted for only 3 percent of the total weekly hours worked by teenagers in 1978. Young people who continue education and work have a time commitment which must be recognised as additional, although a minor one, to that required by formal schooling.

Karmel (1979) provided additional information on the nature of the overlap between education and employment. Although approximately 25 percent of teenagers were involved in both education and work, very few were involved part-time in both activities. As indicated by Table 2.2, the most common combination was full-time employment and part-time study. From this table it is also clear that education was the main activity of teenagers and that paid employment was a secondary activity.

TABLE 2.2
Activities of Persons Aged 15-19 Years, Circa 1978
(Rough Magnitudes in '000 persons)

	EDUCATION			TOTAL
	Full-time	Part-time	Nil	
Work:				
Full-time	-	225	300	525
Part-time	100	Relatively few	25	125
Nil	520	Relatively few	130	650
TOTAL	620	225	455	1,300

Source: Karmel (1979)

In summary, full-time employment opportunities for teenagers declined during the 1970s while at the same time teenage part-time employment grew rapidly. Also, the situation for young women differed in important ways from that of young men. Although more young women stayed on to complete secondary schooling, their full-time opportunities showed a marked decline. On the other hand, more young women were employed part-time. In August 1982, labour force survey data indicated that 69,000 teenage males were working part-time compared with 87,800 teenage females.

2.2 Youth and part-time work: characteristics of work and workers

Part-time work is an increasingly prevalent phenomenon for young people in school, although it should be recognised that there are several distributional biases associated with part-time work and young people. For example, both government and Catholic school students have higher participation rates than non-government non-Catholic school students. There appears to be little difference in part-time work participation by students from differing family income levels, except at the tails of the income distribution where part-time work participation is highest. Australian born teenagers tend to combine schooling and work more than foreign born teenagers (Gregory and Stricker, 1981; Sweet, 1980a, 1981).

The teenage part-time labour market differs from both the full-time teenage labour market and the adult part-time sector (CTEC 1982; Gregory and Stricker, 1981; Hughes, 1982; Paterson and Mackay, 1982; Sweet, 1980a). Teenagers work fewer hours on average than do adult part-time workers. Census figures of 1976 showed that two-thirds of part-time employed teenagers worked for less than 15 hours per week and three quarters worked for less than 20 hours per week. In contrast, over half the part-time working adults worked for 20 hours weekly and a quarter worked for 30 hours weekly (Sweet 1980a). Labour force data show that school students who work part-time, work for only a few hours weekly. In August 1978, 55 percent of employed school leavers worked for 6 hours or less per week (Gregory and Stricker, 1981).

In addition to distributional biases and obvious time differentials between engagement in full and part-time work, differences in occupational clusterings may be noted. Teenage full-time and part-time-workers are represented in a restricted number of jobs, as shown in Table 2.3.

TABLE 2.3
Occupational Distribution of Teenage Full-Time and Part-Time Workers,
Victoria - 1981
(percent)

Occupations:	MALES		FEMALES	
	Full-Time	Part-Time	Full-Time	Part-Time
Professional, Technical	1.9	2.0	6.7	2.5
Administrative, Executive	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Clerical	7.7	5.1	44.8	23.6
Sales	7.4	30.3	20.9	42.7
Farmers, etc.	6.6	7.2	1.1	1.8
Miners, etc.	0.1	0.1	-	-
Transport and Communication	1.5	1.9	0.8	0.7
Tradesmen, Labourers	64.6	32.2	13.9	5.7
Service, Sport & Recreation	4.3	14.8	9.5	18.6
Armed Services	4.0	0.8	0.6	0.1
Other	1.9	5.5	1.6	4.1
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: 1981 Census of Population and Housing

Many teenagers working part-time are located in the sales, service, trades and clerical areas, but many of these jobs are gender specific. Although both sexes are highly represented in the area of sales assistants, more males work as tradesmen or labourers, including storemen, packers and wrappers. Young women tend to work as cashiers and bookkeepers in clerical occupations. In the service category, young men and women tend to work as cooks, waiters or bartenders while young women also work as baby sitters.

Sweet (1981) claims that most teenage part-time jobs are 'pocket money' jobs, a view supported by Paterson and Mackay (1982) who cite unpublished ABS data to show that in 1980, teenage part-time employees earned an average of \$3.28 per hour and worked just over 11 hours per week on average, yielding about \$36 per week. Sweet (1981) and Wilson (1981), among others, argue that these jobs entail no training, demand few skills and provide no access to career paths. Further, many are casual, seasonal or temporary. Sweet (1981) contends that:

'Teenagers holding these jobs work as packers, wrappers, check-out operators, cleaners, shop assistants, short order cooks, counter-hands and labourers. More than a fifth of teenage workers are now at best on the margin of the workforce. They are in poorly paid, casual, brief, low-skilled, dead-end jobs.' (Sweet 1981: 3-4)

The phenomenon of youth part-time work has also been documented in other countries, especially the United States. Between 1940 and 1970, the proportion of 16 year old boys in the United States holding part-time jobs rose from 4 percent to 27 percent. For girls, the proportion increased from 1 percent to 16 percent (Cole 1980; Steinberg *et al.*, 1982). Sheila Cole (1980) estimated that, in the United States about half of all Year 11 and Year 12 students and about 30 percent of Year 9 and Year 10 students are employed. Recent studies have shown that American and Australian teenagers work in similar occupations, namely food service, retail sales, check-out operators, manual labour, clerical work, skilled labour and cleaning (Cole, 1980; Steinberg and Greenberger, 1980). However, American teenagers tend to work longer hours than do Australian teenagers. American data have shown that, in 1960, 44 percent of 16 year old male students worked 14 hours a week but by 1970, 56 percent worked this length of time. For girls, the figure rose from 34 percent to 46 percent (Cole, 1980; Steinberg *et al.*, 1982).

In summary, youth who work part-time in Australia tend to work for a few hours per week in a restricted number of unskilled occupations. Female part-time workers are more numerous but are found in a more limited range of unskilled jobs compared to males - an observation that lends support to claims that the growth in part-time work has not facilitated the movement of young women into broader occupational activities.

2.3 Explanations for the growth of youth part-time work

In order to gain a fuller understanding of the role part-time work plays in the life of young people, it is necessary to understand the reasons they have for engaging in part-time work. Without such understanding, policy initiatives related to youth part-time work may be less effective or perhaps harmful.

As previously noted, the part-time labour force participation rate of in-school youth has grown more rapidly in the last decade than it has for out-of-school youth. This reflects in part, differences between the two groups of young people with respect to the reasons why they wish to work part-time. One explanation for the growth of part-time work by teenagers attending school is that the system of incentives attached to unemployment benefits diverts part-time jobs to in-school youth, making it uneconomic for out-of-school youth seeking work to accept part-time employment because their benefits would be substantially reduced (Gregory and Stricker, 1981).

The mechanism underlying this explanation has drawn criticism on both economic and sociological grounds. Hughes (1982) argues that for income restrictions to act as a disincentive, recipients of unemployment benefits must have the opportunity to work sufficient numbers of hours equivalent to or exceeding the unemployment benefit. However, most part-time jobs are for relatively few hours per week and changes in unemployment benefit payments have not coincided with increased youth employment. Paterson and Mackay, (1982) argue that it has not been established that income restrictions on unemployment benefits have led to the decreased involvement of unemployed teenagers in part-time work. Significantly, the findings of many recent research studies point to an apparently strong commitment to work among young people in Australia - whatever the conditions of the economy. It may be suggested that both young people and adults will, in general, maintain a strong personal desire to be engaged in full-time employment (Behrens, 1977; Brewer, 1975; Connell *et al.*, 1975; Earley, 1981; Windschuttle, 1979; Wright and Headlam, 1976).

Stricker and Sheehan (1981) suggest that some youth working part-time are not content simply with their status as part-time workers; they argue against what they perceive to be the common view that many young people are content with only part-time work. Stricker and Sheehan (1981) point out that the number of persons who are unemployed but who are seeking part-time work is relatively small - only 6,100 persons or 0.9 percent of the total teenage out-of-school labour force at August 1979. This is further supported by statistics concerning those who are working part-time. Sixteen percent of youth working part-time in February 1980, reported that they had actively looked for full-time work in the previous four weeks.

Several authors have drawn attention to the fact that part-time jobs are being created which are well adapted to the leisure hours of school attending teenagers (Gregory and Duncan, 1980; Gregory and Stricker, 1981; Paterson and Mackay, 1982; Stricker and Sheehan, 1981; Sweet, 1980a, 1981). Retail sales and fast food services are examples of these jobs which also reflect product standardisation, specialisation of labour and the changing tastes of consumers (e.g. Sweet, 1980a). This analysis is linked to a perceived restructuring of the economy, with increased emphasis towards the service sector. The automation of this sector has almost eliminated the need to employ skilled or experienced workers in favour of the cheapest available labour source - meaning young people in the Australian context - employed for a few hours or during peak periods of demand (Braverman, 1974).

According to another explanation, rising teenage wages during the 1970s have caused employers to substitute full-time workers by part-time labour, thereby effectively reducing their overall wage costs. However, the relationship between employment changes and relative wages is difficult to determine and led the OECD Survey on Youth Unemployment (1978) to conclude, 'There is no strong evidence that they (youth) are priced out of the market, but then there is no strong evidence that they are not, either'. Sweet (1980a, 1981) discusses this explanation for the growth of teenage part-time work, claiming that the relative cost advantage of part-time teenage labour has been reduced since 1972, because the ratios of ordinary time to part-time and overtime to part-time earnings for juniors have declined. As the Bureau of Labour Market Research has observed:

'In Australia, teenage part-time employment has grown fairly steadily throughout the 1970s despite the compression in junior/adult wage relativities in the mid-1970s. This suggests that changing wage relativities may not have been a key determinant of the growth in part-time employment.' (BLMR, 1983: 20-21).

In view of the massive growth in the number of teenagers seeking but unable to obtain full-time work, it cannot be seriously contended that employers are forced to turn to part-time workers because of a shortage of full-time teenage workers. The severity and duration of the recession in the Australian economy in recent years may have supported the trend towards student employment by encouraging some students to augment family income (depleted by the unemployment of another member of the family) by entering the in-school labour force.

However, Paterson and Mackay (1982) have observed that a relatively small number of students participate in part-time employment because of unemployment of others in the family, and that the rapid growth of part-time student workers during the 1970s preceded the general deterioration in labour market conditions. These factors may reduce the importance of the recession in explaining the growth of part-time employment of students.

Cole (1980) investigated the reasons given by some in-school American youth for engaging in part-time work. She found that the most frequently mentioned reason was to earn spending money. Other reasons mentioned by young people included contributing to family income, gaining experience in a field closely related to career aspirations, parental encouragement to work part-time, a desire of young people to "test" themselves in the world outside school, the sense of "doing something" which work provides and gaining a sense of "independence", "being adult", and "power" associated with earning their own money.

It is common in Australia for students to undertake work experience as a legitimate part of schooling. Students may perceive that this work experience, gained in a part-time capacity assists their entry to the full-time workforce. Bentley and O'Neil's (1982) study of working teenagers in metropolitan Adelaide lends some support to this view. They found that 54 percent of working school students explained their participation in the part-time workforce on these grounds.

The availability of part-time work can also encourage students to remain at school. Paterson and Mackay (1982) suggest that students may work in order to finance their studies. Stricker and Sheehan (1981) and Gregory and Stricker (1981) offer an alternative explanation. They argue that the current high unemployment levels have led youth to return to school. Some of these "discouraged" workers seek full-time employment but accept part-time jobs in the meantime.

However, as noted earlier, part-time employment of teenagers attending school has remained unaffected by the onset of unfavourable economic conditions. Further, Bentley and O'Neil's (1982) study found that fewer than 10 percent were working in order to supplement family income. Merrilees (1980) has argued that school students' entry into the workforce in Australia can be compared with

similar trends in the United States and Canada. While acknowledging the paucity of research in this area, he suggests that students' workforce participation is prompted by a desire for financial and social independence.

Although some research is available concerning the reasons why teenagers engage in part-time work, little systematic or thorough investigation has taken place either in Australia or in the United States. On the available evidence, it seems apparent that the desire for money, independence and adult status play a part. It also seems likely that teenage workers who are at school are satisfied with their part-time work, whereas those who have left school may be bound to accept part-time work (if willing to reduce unemployment benefits) for the lack of full-time employment.

2.4 The effects of part-time work on young people

An analysis of the effects of part-time work must address the short and long-term effects on teenagers, families, schools and the economy. In Australia, studies have generally concentrated on the economic aspects of youth part-time work and very little attention has been given to the role of part-time work in the socialisation of young people. In the United States, a series of studies has been undertaken which considers the effects of part-time work on teenagers' psychological and social development, educational plans, values, achievement and health. Some attention has also been given to the impact of teenagers' part-time work on schools, the work place and the family (Cole, 1980; Steinberg *et al.*, 1981; Steinberg *et al.*, 1982; Steinberg and Greenberger, 1980). The principal issues arising from such studies are discussed below.

2.4.1 Part-time work and occupational competence

In recent years much has been said regarding the need for the earlier integration of adolescents into the world of work. Work experience programs have expanded rapidly both here and overseas. In the United States it has become quite common for schools to develop more flexible programs which allow time for part-time work and, in many cases, give educational credit for such work (Steinberg and Greenberger, 1980). Similar programs operate in Victorian schools (e.g. Cole, 1982). These developments are based on assumptions regarding the value of such work for the occupational socialisation of young people.

Many contend that part-time work undertaken while at school adds to one's human capital, thereby enhancing one's future labour market value. Proponents of this view argue that the work place is the appropriate setting for the acquisition of a wide range of skills which will facilitate the eventual transition to adult work roles. Technical work skills, positive attitudes towards work, practical knowledge regarding the world of work, interpersonal skills and self reliance are all believed to be aspects of occupational competence which adolescents acquire through early work experience. On the other hand, Peter Cole's (1982) extensive analysis of work experience programs in Victoria over a number of years questions not only the lack of technically useful skills derived from such programs, but also whether such work experiences actually provide young people with realistic and worthwhile experiences of employment. This has also been recognised by Greenberger and Steinberg (1980):

'The benefits of working during the in-school years have been over-estimated. Youngsters who work may gain in practical knowledge and have opportunities for modest levels of responsibility-taking, and youngsters who work in certain jobs may develop more advanced social skills. However, adolescents do not typically learn new skills on the job, practice school-taught skills, form meaningful relationships with adults nor engage in high levels of responsibility-taking or social cooperation.'

(Greenberger and Steinberg, 1980:18)

Stevenson (1978) has commented that young people engaged in part-time work do not always gain significantly in terms of their future employability, although working part-time may promote other desirable attributes.

It is important in an analysis of part-time work to determine whether such experience does have the positive effects on occupational competence that are generally assumed.

2.4.2 The role of part-time work in future occupational attainment

Inevitably, an analysis of part-time teenage work must turn to the question of full-time work after the school years. Work is a central feature of adult life, and of the social and status systems of Australian society. A number of questions about part-time work in this regard are pertinent. Are the processes of entry into the full-time labour force affected by previous part-time work experiences? Does part-time work influence later occupational achievement? What is the relationship between educational achievement and part-time work?

Without longitudinal data it is difficult to understand the particular effects arising with respect to the movement of young people from school to work roles. The relative costs and benefits of part-time work need to be sorted out. One possibility is that students who are academically unsuccessful or hold lower educational aspirations and/or expectations may be attracted to the part-time labour force. Furthermore, according to Greenberger and Steinberg (1980), working long hours in part-time occupations may lower educational goals and academic performance of American youth. At issue, therefore, are the inter-connections between education and work and the interactive character of the secondary school experience, part-time work and subsequent educational and occupational attainment.

Proponents of strategies designed to reduce the gap between school and work cite a number of benefits youth can accrue through part-time work. Whether such labour force participation provides a "bridging environment" for assimilation (with enhanced potential) into the labour market via educational credentialling procedures and occupational career positions remains questionable. Polk (1983) argues that the problem of transition from school to work, given the present lack of post-school employment destinations available to young people, needs to be tackled by strategies which forge a link between the systems of employment and education. A reorganisation of present work/school structures which enabled, for example, an arrangement requiring 3 days at work and 2 days at school, would not only create more employment opportunities for youth but would provide young people with a direct, realistic link between school and work and assist them in moving from school to long-term viable occupational careers. During the war on poverty mounted in the United States in the 1960s, Pearl and Reisman (1965) referred to this type of approach as 'new career strategies'. New career strategies are designed to enhance both the educational and occupational attainments of participants.

Whether the nature of part-time work presently undertaken by Australian young people has unfavourable effects on school performance and subsequent adult occupational attainment (i.e. whether a "structural dislocation" exists between young part-time workers in-school and non-workers in-school) is not known.

2.4.3 The role of part-time work in social development

A final issue in considering the significance of youth part-time work relates more specifically to the social psychological situation of young people with respect to their transition from youth to adulthood. To neglect this issue would be to ignore the social development of young people in transition (e.g. Wright and Headlam, 1976).

Criticism of secondary school as the exclusive extrafamilial, socialising environment for adolescents has centred on the failure of schools to adequately prepare young people for transition to adulthood, especially in providing opportunities for developing personal and social responsibility necessary to function effectively as an adult (e.g. Coleman, 1973).

Much of the literature about the role of part-time work in social development has resulted from investigations of American researchers. In general, these studies claim that part-time work is favourably regarded because it is believed that work settings:

- provide young people with opportunities to gain experience in taking responsibility for themselves and to assume responsibility for tasks which affect others;

- provide opportunities for young people to encounter non-familial adults who will serve as teachers, socialisers and friends;

- provide opportunities for learning new skills and for practising formal skills learnt at school; and,

- facilitate the development of healthy attitudes towards work.

In relation to the above points, Steinberg *et al.*, (1982) have reported the following findings based on a research study of Year 10 and 11 high school students in California:

Four-fifths of teenage part-time workers felt they were discharging their tasks in a responsible manner. However, very few showed exceptional dedication to duty (e.g. 60 percent of first job-holders reported having committed some misdemeanour within a 9 month period: many failed to arrive at work and did not provide sufficient excuse).

Contact with adults was limited in scope and fewer than 10 percent felt like discussing a personal problem with adults at work.

Working did not contribute to the acquisition of practical knowledge, especially among "less talented" students.

Social understanding, tolerance and a preparedness to consider other points of view were enhanced through work.

Sex-stereotyping occurred both within and between jobs held by teenagers. Boys were more likely to be employed as manual labourers, whereas girls were more frequently employed as clerical and child care workers. Boys and girls also performed different tasks when employed in the same occupation, e.g. in food service jobs. Boys were generally paid at a higher hourly rate than girls, worked longer hours and hence earned considerably more than girls.

The impact of part-time work on attitudes towards work showed both positive and negative aspects. Working teenagers claimed that they were more persistent, less distractable and took pride in work well done. Part-time work did not appear to affect career plans, but girls who worked part-time favoured future careers according to the money and job security they offered, whereas boys valued autonomy and decision making in future careers. However, some costs to schooling were noted which affected career options. Further, there was some evidence that working students held more cynical attitudes towards work and work satisfaction than did non-working students.

Working resulted in a reduction of time spent with families and led to reduced closeness with friends. However, boys, but not girls, experienced greater empathy with parents as a result of working.

From such findings, Steinberg *et al.* (1982) concluded that the benefits of working were over-estimated. They argued that some jobs facilitated the transition to adulthood of some teenagers, while for others the workplace is only an extension of the adolescent sub-culture rather than a bridge to adulthood.

In considering these findings within the Australian context, the differences that exist between the Australian and American youth labour markets need to be recognised. For example, Australian students work relatively few hours per week in comparison with their American counterparts. American students also appear to work through their secondary school careers more commonly than do Australian students (Feldstein and Ellwood, 1979). Nonetheless, the studies cited above are relevant to the issues addressed in this study.

2.5 Concluding comment

This chapter has drawn upon a volume of Australian and American research literature concerning youth and part-time work. Traditionally, part-time work has been typically regarded as a minor experience for young people (given the major emphasis in western society on full-time education and full-time employment). More recently, part-time work has been identified as a significant experience for many youth in that it contributes to the "growing-up" process. This process, generally referred to as the transition from youth to adulthood, is a complex phase of life involving educational, occupational, familial and social aspects and needs to be investigated accordingly:

'... social critics, policy makers and researchers alike typically discuss adolescent work as if it were a unidimensional problem, i.e. as if all jobs were essentially equivalent in their activities, roles and interpersonal relations.'

(Steinberg and Greenberger, 1980: 60-61)

The literature cited in this chapter leads to a conclusion that an investigation of the part-time work phenomenon should attempt to inform our understanding of, and policies regarding, youth in transition.

CHAPTER 3

THE STUDY: DESIGN AND METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES

This research study is the first phase of the Institute's investigation of the phenomenon of part-time work among young people and its influence on their transition from youth to adulthood. The research design was structured in order that findings could be presented within a twelve month period. (It is intended to further investigate the issues raised in this report and provide subsequent reports based on more specific analyses.) This chapter describes the methodological procedures used to implement and complete this research investigation.

3.1 Sources of Data

This study was established as a one year initial study using existing data previously collected through two survey waves of a longitudinal panel study, augmented with the collection and analysis of a third wave of survey data obtained from the same panel. The third wave included personal interviews (with a sample of the panel) as well as a mailed survey questionnaire. In addition, another set of interviews were conducted with a sample of young part-time workers, who were not members of the longitudinal panel.

The varied nature of the major research questions (listed in Chapter 1), when considered in light of the fact that the experiences of part-time work vary for different subpopulations of youth, established particular boundaries for the design of this study. The exploratory and descriptive nature of many research investigations commonly requires a blending of both qualitative and quantitative research techniques and this study was no exception. For example, substantial reliance on quantitative data analysis was required in order to enable comprehensive descriptions about the extent and nature of youth involvement in part-time work. Qualitative data were gathered to provide material which illuminated and elaborated the quantitative perspectives gained from analyses of the longitudinal data. It may also be added that difficulties in measuring some of the effects of part-time work on the lives of young people support the need to provide a qualitative treatment of some major research questions.

While a longitudinal data base permits analyses of a large number of constructs concerning the part-time work experiences of young people, reliance on survey methods alone would limit examination of other relevant issues of the phenomenon under investigation.

3.2 Longitudinal panel study

As stated above, longitudinal data provided the central data base for this study. The VISE longitudinal study was first conceptualised in 1978 as a means of obtaining information about the determinants of students' vocational and educational plans and aspirations, and the relationship between plans and actual outcomes. A longitudinal framework was chosen to allow for the identification of long-term relationships among variables and the measurement of changes in variables over time.

During 1979, survey questionnaires were developed and pilot tested on a sample of Year 9 students (N = 276). Modification of the questionnaire occurred on the basis of pilot test results. In May 1980, the first survey questionnaire (i.e. wave 1 data collection) was administered to a sample of Year 9 students, (N=2378) mostly aged about 14 years, enrolled in Victorian government, non-government non-Catholic (independent) and Catholic secondary schools. Estimates of the number of secondary school students in Victoria were based on 1978 enrolment data for government and independent schools and 1979 enrolment data for Catholic schools. Use of the sampling method known as stratified proportionate sampling (see Kish, 1965) provided some assurance that the students selected would be representative of the Victorian Year 9 secondary school population. Schools were stratified according to three characteristics:

1. Geographical region (Melbourne metropolitan, country-urban and country)
2. School system (government high, government technical, independent and Catholic)
3. Single-sex, co-educational

In addition, the size of each school's student population was taken into account by rank ordering schools according to size within each stratum. From the sampling frame, 26 Victorian secondary schools were selected and from these schools, 2378 students were surveyed in Wave 1. (1) The number and percentages of students within each stratification category are presented in Table 3.1.

1. See Appendix 1 for sampling methodology, weighting procedure and attrition.

TABLE 3.1
School Characteristics of Wave 1 (1980) Sample (2)

	N Males	N Females	N Persons	Percent of Total
<u>Characteristic:</u>				
<u>Geographic Region</u>				
Melbourne metropolitan	812	769	1581	66
country-urban	237	217	454	19
country	161	182	343	14
<u>School System</u>				
government high	419	606	1025	43
government technical	495	79	574	24
Catholic	153	386	539	23
independent	143	97	240	10
<u>Single Sex/Co-educational</u>				
single-sex	583	482	1065	45
co-educational	627	686	1313	55

In order to ensure that the proportion of students within strata reflected the actual proportion of Year 9 students in the Victorian secondary school population, stratum weights were applied (see Appendix 1 for details of the weighting procedure). The weighted sample consisted of 1210 males and 1168 females.

The 1980 survey questionnaire consisted of a general social background (including socioeconomic class and ethnicity), vocational and educational plans and attitudes toward school items, school subjects inventories and a sex-role attitude scale.

2. Categories in all tables in this report do not always add to 100% because of rounding.

In July 1981, wave 2 data were obtained for two groups of the 2378 young people in the panel, those who were in Year 10 at school and those who had left school. For the in-school group, follow-up data were collected which included vocational aspirations and intentions, educational aspirations and intentions, attitudes toward school, friends' educational plans, parents' and teachers' opinions about educational intentions and self-assessment of educational success at school. The school-leavers were asked about their reasons for leaving school, influence of others on their decision to leave, characteristics about their job status (including unemployment) and their future education and employment intentions. (3)

By the time VISE finalised negotiations for funding in April 1983, a third wave of data collection was underway. A substantive concern for wave 3 data collection was differential loss from the panel because of attrition. Given that the respondent loss rate from wave 1 to wave 2 amounted to 13 percent of the original panel and that serious problems for data analysis and interpretation would be introduced if attrition from the panel continued at this high rate, efforts to maximize the response rate were of utmost concern. An alteration in the data collection procedures, which to that point had been conducted through the schools, was particularly necessary given that many panel members had left the school they attended in 1980 and had enrolled at other schools or had taken employment. (4)

With the co-operation of each school (N=25), extensive tracking procedures were initiated. (5) In November 1982, each school was requested to provide the last known home (or contact) address for those panel students who had attended the school in 1980. Following receipt of this information, research staff contacted other schools, referred to state telephone directories and contacted peers in an effort to gain updated address information. As a result of these tracking procedures addresses for all but 62 members of the original panel were obtained, although it is not possible to determine the accuracy of all addresses because of non response and return of unopened mail. (6)

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3. These data are not reported in the present study.
 4. See Appendix 1.
 5. The number of schools was reduced from 26 to 25 because one school from which the original panel was sampled had closed by 1982.
 6. Together with post office returned mail, a minimum estimate of 8 percent of the original panel could not be located.

On 1 March 1983, the third wave of data collection commenced. At this stage, many of those panel members still at school were undertaking a Year 12 course. When coding was completed in July 1983, 83 percent of the 2316 panel members who were mailed a survey had responded. Issues regarding employment (both full-time and part-time), Year 12 education activities, school leavers and attitudes to school structured the majority of items contained in the survey of relevance to the present study. As indicated above, there was approximately a 19 per-cent attrition rate from wave 1 to wave 3. The characteristics of those who did not respond to the wave 3 questionnaire are described in Appendix 1. Briefly, nonrespondents were those more likely to be male and/or from lower socioeconomic background.

3.3 Interviews

3.3.1 Interviews - panel sample

From wave 3 data it was possible to identify those members of the panel who were engaged in part-time work (defined as work entailing between 1 and 34 hours per week) in early 1983. This group represented approximately 18 percent (N=338) of wave 3 panel respondents available for analysis.

A random sampling method was used to select a sample of 10 percent of the part-time work group for potential interview. Letters were sent to these young people in December 1983 inviting them to participate in a short interview (approximately 30 minutes duration) either at VISE or in their homes. A \$15 honorarium was offered in recognition of willingness to participate.

Considerable efforts were made to obtain an interview sample which adequately represented the relative proportions of male/female, in school/not in school and metropolitan/country young part-time workers in the panel. A significant determiner of the composition of the actual group of young people interviewed, however, was availability to participate in an interview during December 1983. With sampling by replacement, interviews with just less than 10 percent (N=30) of this group were conducted by research staff.

The nature of the interview sample is described in Table 3.2. Of the group, 67 percent were female, 57 percent were aged 17 years, 59 percent resided in Melbourne metropolitan education regions in 1980 and 70 percent attended school during 1983. These proportions are reasonably consistent with the part-time

work participation data trends, evident from ABS data, but it must be recognised that the females in the interview sample are over-represented when compared to ABS data. Reference to Table 2.1 in Chapter 2 of this report indicates that approximately 57% of teenagers engaged in part-time work in 1980 were females.

TABLE 3.2
Characteristics of Panel Interviewees

	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Characteristic:						
<u>Type of School Attended at Wave 1</u>						
metropolitan high	3	15	1	10	4	13
metropolitan technical	1	5	-	-	1	3
metropolitan independent	2	10	4	40	6	20
metropolitan catholic	1	5	6	60	7	23
country high	1	5	5	50	6	20
country technical	2	10	-	-	2	7
country catholic	-	-	4	40	4	14
<u>Educational Status at Wave 3</u>						
at school	8	80	13	65	21	70
not at school	2	20	7	35	9	30
<u>Age</u>						
17 years	5	50	12	60	17	57
18 years	5	50	8	40	13	43

The interviews with the 30 panel members were conducted by research staff using a structured interview schedule which was developed and pilot tested by VISE research staff. Interview questions were designed according to the research questions under study and available research literature. The 22 question schedule focussed on issues concerning, the nature of part-time work, acquiring part-time work and the relationship between part-time work and the transition from youth to adulthood.

3.3.2 Interviews - Non-panel students

As well as conducting interviews with a sample drawn from the longitudinal panel, it was considered desirable to gain qualitative information related to part-time work from a group of students who were younger than the panel sample. The interview schedule used to conduct interviews with this sample of in-school students who worked part-time and were not members of the longitudinal panel was, in essence, a shortened version of that discussed in the previous section.

The particular relevance of this data source is twofold. First, it provided interview data about younger secondary school students (i.e. Years 9 to 11) for analyses. The interview data for the 1983 in-school group from the longitudinal panel represent, in all but two cases, findings about Year 12 students. It was important to investigate whether the findings for the panel are generalizable to younger students. Consequently, and rather than resorting to retrospective data collection (an approach susceptible to methodological flaws), an interview schedule was administered to 48 Victorian secondary school students who were in Years 9 to 11 in 1983.

Second, young people do use a different language to communicate their experiences to one another. Social scientists need to tap into this language if the data collected and the findings generated are to adequately reflect the lives and experiences of young people. One way of overcoming this type of threat to validity is to employ young people as researchers. (7) In this regard, four Year 10 students from Footscray High School were commissioned to assist in the preparation of the interview schedule and to conduct the interviews.

7. See Coventry, Cornish and Cramer (1984) for discussion of the benefits of this approach.

During third term of the 1983 school year the student research team interviewed 48 students from 7 schools about their part-time jobs. An attempt was made to ensure that the sample contained students with a range of characteristics including gender, age, year level, type of school attended and area of residence. The data in Table 3.3 indicate that this interview sample contained such representation.

TABLE 3.3
Characteristics of Non-panel Student Interviewees

	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Characteristic:						
<u>Type of School in 1983</u>						
metropolitan high	14	52	6	29	20	42
metropolitan technical	4	15	-	-	4	8
metropolitan independent	7	26	-	-	7	15
metropolitan catholic	-	-	8	38	8	17
country high	2	7	7	33	9	19
<u>Year Level</u>						
Year 9	10	37	3	14	13	27
Year 10	10	37	9	43	19	40
Year 11	7	26	9	43	16	33
<u>Age</u>						
14 years	3	11	3	14	6	13
15 years	12	44	7	33	19	40
16 years	6	22	8	38	14	29
17 years	6	22	3	14	9	19

3.4 Measurement and Analysis Procedures

As described earlier, the data employed for this research study were both quantitative and qualitative in nature. The principal quantitative data which were available spanned three waves of questionnaire data collection (1980-1983), while the qualitative information was obtained by interview methods. (8) When considered in relation to one another, these sources can be viewed as a variant of data triangulation (or a combination of research methodologies used to study a research problem). To bring forward sensible interpretations of this data base requires considerable time and rigorous application of a range of methodological procedures. The procedures used are discussed below in a form which provides information about the measurement of variables and the methods of analysis used to examine the study's research questions.

3.4.1 Measuring the part-time work phenomenon

Differentiation of the variables used in this study was accomplished by a number of measurement methods. Interview schedules predominantly required open-ended responses to questions concerning part-time work. (These data are discussed in Chapter 5). Questionnaires included open-ended, likert scale, dichotomous and classification items. As these items constitute the quantitative analysis undertaken in the subsequent chapter and set the context in which qualitative data drawn from the longitudinal panel are to be interpreted, they are discussed here.

To assist readers of this report, the measurement of questionnaire variables is detailed under headings which refer to five clusters of the data analysis. These variables were collected in Wave 1 and Wave 3 of the longitudinal study and, accordingly, refers to Wave 1 background characteristics and Wave 3 educational and employment activities of the panel. A brief description of the variables follows.

Four groups of variables drawn from Wave 1 data are briefly described under the headings: individual characteristics, family background characteristics, school characteristics and social psychological characteristics.

8. In order to maximize the validity of data obtained, all phases of the research adhered to strict confidentiality and anonymity research guidelines.

Individual Characteristics

Gender: this dichotomous variable indicated the sex of respondents

Ethnicity: this variable classified respondents according to country of birth as follows -

1. Australian Born (both respondent and parents born in Australia)
2. English-speaking Country Born (both respondent and parents born in English-speaking countries outside Australia)
3. Non English-speaking Country Born (both respondent and parents born in non-English-speaking countries)
4. Parent English-speaking Country Born (one or both parents born in English-speaking countries outside Australia)
5. Parent Non English-speaking Country Born (one or both parents born in non-English speaking countries)

Family Background Characteristics

Three variables were regarded as specific indicators of social class position and were combined to create an index of socioeconomic class background ($\alpha = 0.70$). (9)

Socioeconomic class background: The variables were -

1. Father's Occupation (a 6-point scale of occupational prestige classified according to Broom et al., 1965. Possible scores ranged from 1, representing low status (i.e. unskilled labour) to 6, representing high status (i.e. professional employment))
2. Father's Educational Attainment (a 9 point scale where 1 represented no schooling and 9 represented completion of a university degree)
3. Mother's Educational Attainment (as for 2 above)

Another feature of family background selected for analysis was parents' educational expectations for their children

9. See Appendix 2 for intercorrelation matrix.

Parental Educational Expectation: this variable measures respondents' perceptions of the educational expectations held for them by their parents. Measurement was on a scale of 1-5, where 1 represented leaving before the end of Year 9 and 5 represented leaving at the end of Year 12. In addition, a category of "not known" was included.

School Characteristics

Two key characteristics of the school attended by the panel as Year 9 students were drawn from Wave 1 data.

School Type: this variable provides 4 categories of Victorian secondary schools -

- Government high
- Government technical
- Catholic
- Independent

School Location: this variable provides 3 categories -

- Melbourne metropolitan
- Country-urban
- Country

Social Psychological Characteristics

Attitudes about the importance of school and schooling, perception of educational success compared with other students and occupational aspirations were included in the surveys.

Importance of School: 6-item scale ($\alpha = 0.84$) was used to measure students' opinions of the importance and value of schooling. (10) The items were likert-type with categories ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" -

1. I don't learn anything important at school
2. I see no use for what we study
3. It is important to stay at school
4. Going to school is a waste of time

10. See Appendix 2 for intercorrelation matrix.

5. I wouldn't go if I had a choice

6. I care about my schoolwork

School Success: this variable sought student opinion of their educational success compared with other students. Response categories ranged from 1 - "below average" to 3 - "better than most"

Occupational Aspirations: respondents reported their future job aspirations and these responses were coded on the same scale as that used to measure father's occupation

The major dependent variables of this study relate to the educational and employment activities of the panel at Wave 3. The six variables are reported below.

Educational/Employment Characteristics

Educational Status: this variable identified the 1983 respondents' educational status in terms of 3 categories -
in secondary school
in other education
not in education

Employment Status: this dichotomous variable indicated whether or not respondents were employed at the time of wave 3 data collection

Hours: this variable indicated the number of hours worked per week according to the categories 1-4, 5-9, 10-14, 15-19, 20-34, and greater than 34 hours

Educational status, employment status and hours provide the major dependent variable "Profile at Wave 3" (reported in Chapter 4), which classifies respondents according to their involvement in education and/or employment (both on a full-time and part-time basis).

Industry classification: the classification of the industries in which the young people were employed was as follows - food and drink, general retail, trades, transport, entertainment, paramedical, agriculture and domestic

Occupational Classification: respondents' occupations were classified as follows - retail sales, services, packers, manual labour, cleaners, process workers, clerical, delivery, apprenticeship and other

Pay: this variable gathered information about respondents' average weekly take-home pay

3.4.2 Methods of analysis

This study of part-time work uses quantitative longitudinal data and qualitative information. Through the longitudinal data it has been possible to trace a panel of youth from 1980, when they were Year 9 students, to 1983 when the majority were still engaged in education. To assist interpretation of this volume of data the analysis has focused on four major dimensions which describe important features of adolescence. These were referred to in section 3.5.1 as individual, family background, school and social psychological characteristics. Qualitative data provide some elucidation of these dimensions.

Of particular importance is how these Year 9 background characteristics of the panel relate to the group's involvement in education and employment, especially part-time work, in 1983. Consequently, the major form of analysis reported is crosstabular. While Cramer's V and Chi-square probability values are provided throughout Chapter 4, other tests of statistical significance for particular categories of 1983 education/employment activities are not reported. As this study's principal intent was to examine substantive or practical trends, rather than distributional aspects of the data, additional statistical tests were not seen as relevant.

As well as analysing each characteristic (or antecedent variable) in relation to part-time employment, it was necessary to conduct a multivariate analysis to examine possible interactions between the antecedent and dependent variables. The technique of discriminant function analysis was used and the findings from this approach are discussed in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4

PART-TIME WORK: EVIDENCE FROM THE VISE LONGITUDINAL STUDY

As discussed in Chapter 3 of this report, the principal data source for this research study was the longitudinal panel study of Victorian teenagers conducted over three waves by the Victorian Institute of Secondary Education. This chapter uses this data base to describe a range of characteristics of young part-time workers and their part-time jobs. Further, these characteristics are compared with those for young people of the panel who were engaged in full-time work and others who were not working in early 1983. It will be recalled that panel members in 1983 were aged 17 or 18.

For the analyses which follow, part-time workers were those who reported that they worked less than 35 hours a week and full-time workers were those who reported that they worked 35 hours or more each week. Not employed youth were defined as those who reported that they were not working, either full-time or part-time, at the time of data collection in 1983. It should be noted that only 21 percent of the "not employed" group were not engaged in full-time education.

The longitudinal study data did not enable the distinction to be made between those who were not employed and actively seeking work and, those who were not employed and not actively seeking work.

In Section 4.1 data are presented indicating the number and proportion of youth who were in various educational situations (secondary school, other post-compulsory education, not attending any form of education), and in each case, the number engaged in part-time and full-time employment and the number not employed are given. Section 4.2 describes key characteristics of the part-time jobs held by panel members in 1983.

Section 4.3 compares the Year 9 characteristics of part-time workers with others in the panel with respect to school location, school system, ethnicity, socioeconomic class background, parental educational expectations, perceptions of school success and attitudes towards school. The analyses reported in this section purposefully start from a relatively simple, discrete examination of each characteristic in relation to a reduced form of the employment profile provided in section 4.1. This reduced form does not include the educational status of the panel in 1983.

The following section (4.4), disaggregates the data in order that the relationships between background characteristics and the 1983 activities, in terms of both employment and educational status, can be examined. This section also addresses these relationships with respect to young men and young women and a summary of these data is provided in Section 4.5. Finally, in Section 4.6 an attempt is made to examine the combined effects of all background factors through a discriminant function analysis.

Throughout this chapter, major findings of the data are presented in point form and are discussed in summary paragraphs, where appropriate. For the most part, data tables include Cramer's V, chi-square and associated probability values as summary statistics.

4.1 Labour market and educational activities of youth

What is the extent of participation in education and employment by youth? The data presented in Tables 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3 provide details of the labour market situation and educational status in March 1983 of males, females and persons respectively, who responded to the third wave questionnaire of the VISE longitudinal study. From these data several significant points should be observed:

Education

- . Of the 879 males, 53 percent were attending secondary school, 14 percent were in forms of education other than secondary schools (i.e. "other education"), while 34 percent were not involved in any form of education (i.e. "not in education"). (1)
- . Of the 954 females, 62 percent were attending secondary school, 9 percent were in other education and 30 percent were not in education.

1. For both males and females other forms of education include TAFE Certificate, other TAFE, apprenticeship, paramedical and business courses. Most young people were enrolled in a range of courses offered by TAFE or held apprenticeships (apprenticeships were mainly undertaken by males).

TABLE 4.1 *

Labour Market and Educational Activities of Male Youth in VISE Longitudinal Study, March 1983

	MALES		
	N	Percent of Group	Percent of Gender Cohort
Group:			
A. <u>In Secondary School</u>			
Employed 1-34 hours	116	25	13
Employed 35 or more hours	0	0	0
TOTAL EMPLOYED	116	25	13
NOT EMPLOYED	347	75	40
TOTAL AT SCHOOL	463	100	53
B. <u>In Other Education</u>			
Employed 1-34 hours	6	5	1
Employed 35 or more hours	97	80	11
TOTAL EMPLOYED	103	85	12
NOT EMPLOYED	18	15	2
TOTAL IN OTHER EDUCATION	121	100	14
C. <u>Not in Education</u>			
Employed 1-34 hours	22	8	3
Employed 35 or more hours	165	56	19
TOTAL EMPLOYED	187	63	21
NOT EMPLOYED	108	37	12
TOTAL NOT IN EDUCATION	295	100	34
D. <u>Total Longitudinal Cohort in March 1983</u>			
Employed 1-34 hours	144	--	16 --
Employed 35 or more hours	262	--	30 --
TOTAL EMPLOYED	406	--	46 --
NOT EMPLOYED	473	--	54 --
TOTAL COHORT	879	--	100 --

* As previously noted, in the tables of this chapter some column percentages may not sum to 100 because of rounding.

TABLE 4.2

Labour Market and Educational Activities of Female Youth in VISE Longitudinal Study, March 1983

	FEMALES		
	N	Percent of Group	Percent of Gender Cohort
Group:			
A. <u>In Secondary School</u>			
Employed 1-34 hours	143	24	15
Employed 35 or more hours	1	0	0
TOTAL EMPLOYED	144	25	15
NOT EMPLOYED	443	76	46
TOTAL AT SCHOOL	587	100	62
B. <u>In Other Education</u>			
Employed 1-34 hours	11	13	1
Employed 35 or more hours	24	28	3
TOTAL EMPLOYED	35	41	4
NOT EMPLOYED	51	59	5
TOTAL IN OTHER EDUCATION	86	100	9
C. <u>Not in Education</u>			
Employed 1-34 hours	40	14	4
Employed 35 or more hours	128	46	13
TOTAL EMPLOYED	168	60	18
NOT EMPLOYED	113	40	12
TOTAL NOT IN EDUCATION	281	100	30
D. <u>Total Longitudinal Cohort in March 1983</u>			
Employed 1-34 hours	194	--	20
Employed 35 or more hours	153	--	16
TOTAL EMPLOYED	347	--	36
NOT EMPLOYED	607	--	64
TOTAL COHORT	954	--	100

TABLE 4.3

Labour Market and Educational Activities of All Youth in VISE Longitudinal Study, March 1983

	PERSONS		
	N	Percent of Group	Percent of Cohort
Group:			
A. <u>In Secondary School</u>			
Employed 1-34 hours	259	25	14
Employed 35 or more hours	1	0	0
TOTAL EMPLOYED	260	25	14
NOT EMPLOYED	790	75	43
TOTAL AT SCHOOL	1050	100	57
B. <u>In Other Education</u>			
Employed 1-34 hours	17	8	1
Employed 35 or more hours	121	59	7
TOTAL EMPLOYED	138	67	8
NOT EMPLOYED	69	33	4
TOTAL IN OTHER EDUCATION	207	100	12
C. <u>Not in Education</u>			
Employed 1-34 hours	62	11	3
Employed 35 or more hours	293	51	16
TOTAL EMPLOYED	355	62	19
NOT EMPLOYED	221	38	12
TOTAL NOT IN EDUCATION	576	100	31
D. <u>Total Longitudinal Cohort in March 1983</u>			
Employed 1-34 hours	338	--	18 --
Employed 35 or more hours	415	--	23 --
TOTAL EMPLOYED	753	--	41 --
NOT EMPLOYED	1080	--	59 --
TOTAL COHORT	1833	--	100 --

Employment

- . 46 percent of males were employed (either on a full-time or part-time basis) compared with 36 percent of females.
- . Of working males, 36 percent were employed on a part-time basis whereas, 56 percent of females were part-time workers.

Secondary education and part-time employment

- . Of young male part-time workers, 81 percent attended secondary school, 4 percent were in other education and 15 percent were not in education.
- . Of young female part-time workers, 74 percent attended secondary school, 6 percent were in other education and 21 percent were not in education.
- . Of all young people engaged in part-time work, 77 percent attended secondary school, 5 percent were in other education and 18 percent were not in education.

Other education and employment

- . Of those in other education, 80 percent of males were employed full-time compared with 28 percent of females.
- . Of those in other education, 15 percent of males were not employed compared with 59 per-cent of females.

From these data, differences may be observed in the employment and educational profiles of males and females. For instance, while young women participate in secondary education more than young men, their overall participation in employment is somewhat less. However, for young people not in education but engaged in employment, part-time work appears to be relatively more prevalent among females, whereas full-time work for this group appears relatively more prevalent among males. These patterns also hold for those young people in other education. The substantial difference between male and female full-time workers in "other education" may be accounted for by the fact that apprenticeship courses are, for the most part, undertaken by males.

Clearly, the patterns evident from Tables 4.1 to 4.3 indicate that part-time work is an experience engaged in by many young people (18% of the panel) and that the greater majority of this group (77%) were, at the same time, attending secondary school. These findings are consistent with the findings of other researchers who have measured the part-time work phenomenon using census data (e.g. Gregory and Stricker, 1981; Sweet, 1980a, 1980b). Before examining the background characteristics of young people who hold part-time jobs it is informative to consider major features of part-time employment.

4.2 Characteristics of part-time jobs held by teenagers

Obviously the experience of part-time work for young people varies greatly; it is dependent upon such factors as the characteristics of the young people, the locality, the economic climate and the structure of the labour market.

Although disaggregation of the youth population who work part-time (or indeed full-time) would provide parameter estimates about part-time workers that reflected such diversity, the sample size for this research restricts our use of such an approach. Consequently, analyses which are reported in the following sections have treated the part-time work phenomenon essentially as a homogeneous category, thereby neglecting some differences in key features of the part-time work experience.

This section draws upon the longitudinal questionnaire data to identify the principal industries and occupations in which young people are employed, their hours of employment and wages yielded by these part-time jobs. These occupational and industry patterns provide important descriptions of the general category "part-time work" used in the remainder of this report. (2)

4.2.1 Industry (3)

The data in Table 4.4 indicate that the largest single industry employing young part-time workers was the food and drink industry, which accounted for 40 percent of all the part-time teenage workers. This industry was particularly

2. The N's for various categories in the tables reported in this chapter sometimes do not equate with actual N's because of both weighting and differential response rates to particular variables. This sampling aspect is discussed in Appendix 1.

important in providing part-time employment to young people attending educational institutions, accounting for 43 percent of the part-time employment for educational attendees compared to only 26 percent of those not attending educational institutions. The building, metal, electrical, printing and other trades collectively account for almost one quarter of teenage part-time workers who are not attending educational institutions but only 9 percent of those attending educational institutions. On the other hand, the retail industry appears to be more important in providing employment to persons attending educational institutions than in providing part-time employment to those not attending educational institutions. Agriculture accounts for a much higher proportion of persons not attending educational institutions compared to the proportion of persons attending educational institutions.

4.2.2 Occupation

The occupations of teenagers working part-time in March 1983 are shown in Table 4.5. While 76 percent of those attending educational institutions identified their part-time job as either "retail sales", "services", or "packer", this description was given by only 45 percent of those who were not attending educational institutions. The latter group were also concentrated in a range of occupations including manual labourer, cleaner, process workers and apprenticeships.

These occupational categories, apart from "cleaner", appear to be mainly undertaken by males, a finding consistent with the distributional biases noted by census data (e.g. 1981 Census of Population and Housing).

4.2.3 Hours Worked

The data in Table 4.6 indicate that 82 percent of part-time workers attending educational institutions worked 9 hours or less each week, compared to only 45 percent of those not attending educational institutions. On the other hand, part-time employment of between 10 and 34 hours each week accounted for 55 percent of those not attending educational institutions but only 17 percent of those attending educational institutions. Clearly, part-time work taken in conjunction with participation in education amounts to only a small number of hours each week for the vast majority of persons undertaking this combination.

-
3. Of the 1983 group who were classified as part-time workers, 59 percent reported that it was their first job.

TABLE 4.4

Industry Classification of Part-time Workers, March 1983

(percentage of respondents)

	EDUCATIONAL STATUS					
	Attending Educational Institutions			Not attending Educational Institutions		
	Male (N=122)	Female (N=152)	Total (N=274)	Male (N=22)	Female (N=39)	Total (N=61)
Industry Classification:						
Food and drink	46	41	43	27	26	26
General Retail	11	21	16	4	13	10
Trades	9	10	10	38	16	24
Transport	14	-	6	12	-	5
Entertainment	7	6	6	8	6	7
Paramedical	1	11	7	-	13	8
Agriculture	8	1	5	11	9	9
Domestic	4	10	7	-	16	10
TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100	100

Males - Chi-square (d.f. 7) = 17.53, $p < .05$

Cramer's V = 0.35

Females - Chi-square (7) = 13.19, N.S.

Cramer's V = 0.26

TABLE 4.5

Occupational Classification of Part-time Workers, March 1983

(percentage of respondents)

	EDUCATIONAL STATUS					
	Attending Educational Institutions			Not Attending Educational Institutions		
	Male (N=122)	Female (N=152)	Total (N=274)	Male (N=22)	Female (N=39)	Total (N=61)
Occupational Classification:						
Retail Sales	18	60	41	8	33	24
Services	28	25	26	6	27	19
Packers	20	1	9	6	-	2
Manual Labour	8	1	4	24	6	13
Cleaners	4	2	3	3	8	6
Process Workers	4	1	2	9	8	9
Clerical	1	5	3	4	1	2
Delivery	7	-	3	-	-	-
Apprenticeship	2	-	1	22	4	11
Other	9	6	7	17	13	14
TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100	100

Males - Chi-square (9) = 34.77, $p < .001$

Cramer's V = 0.49

Females - Chi-square (8) = 27.52, $p < .001$

Cramer's V = 0.38

TABLE 4.6

Distribution of Hours worked for Part-time Workers, March 1983
(percentage of respondents)

	EDUCATIONAL STATUS					
	Attending Educational Institutions			Not Attending Educational Institutions		
	Male (N=122)	Female (N=152)	Total (N=274)	Male (N=22)	Female (N=40)	Total (N=62)
Hours per week:						
1-4	23	36	30	-	13	8
5-9	55	50	52	41	36	37
10-34	22	14	17	59	51	55
TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100	100

4.2.4 Wages Earned by Part-time Workers

Respondents to the March 1983 questionnaire indicated that the average wage income for part-time workers attending educational institutions was \$31 per week, while that of part-time workers not at school was \$90 per week. This difference reflects the much larger amount of hours worked by those not attending educational institutions. Overall, the average weekly income of \$40 of all part-time workers of the longitudinal panel is dominated by the number of persons working part-time and attending educational institutions. The figure is about one third of the average income of full-time workers in the panel (\$122 per week).

4.3 Background characteristics of youth in work and not in work

In the literature review a number of relevant factors which distinguish between those young people who participate and do not participate in part-time employment were discussed. This section presents data which are indicative of several structural (i.e. family and educational) and social psychological factors, some of which it has been argued, are relevant to an investigation of the part-time work phenomenon.

These structural features are examined for those young people employed full-time, part-time and those not employed (the majority of whom were attending school). In addition, data concerning youth attitudes about the importance of school and schooling, perceptions about school success and occupational aspirations are considered.

In considering characteristics of the schools attended by the panel as Year 9 students in 1980, two relationships between school location and school system, on the one hand, and the 1983 employment status of the panel on the other, are described in Tables 4.7 and 4.8. As for all background characteristics, school location and school system refer to the situation pertaining in 1980. Therefore, it must be emphasised that the type of school attended was for Year 9 and movement of some members of the panel from one system or locality to another between 1980 and 1983 introduces the need for caution when interpreting findings related to school characteristics.

TABLE 4.7

Employment Status at Wave 3 (1983) by School Location at Wave 1 (1980)
(percentage of respondents)

	SCHOOL LOCATION		
	Metropolitan (N=1205)	Country Urban (N=219)	Country (N=408)
Employment Status:			
Employed Full-time	19	29	29
Employed Part-time	19	20	16
Not Employed	62	51	55
TOTAL	100	100	100
Chi-square (4) = 27.51, p < .001			
Cramer's V = 0.09			

TABLE 4.8

Employment Status at Wave 3 (1983) by School System at Wave 1 (1980)
(percentage of respondents)

	SCHOOL SYSTEM			
	Government High (N=1031)	Government Technical (N=323)	Catholic (N=302)	Independent (N=176)
Employment Status:				
Employed Full-time	21	43	11	15
Employed Part-time	19	10	23	24
Not employed	60	47	66	61
TOTAL	100	100	100	100

Chi-square (6) = 113.83, $p < .001$

Cramer's V = 0.18

Certain differences in the employment status of these young people by two school characteristics are identified as follows:

School location

- Students from metropolitan schools appear less likely to be engaged in full-time work than students from other schools in other areas. Relative involvement in part-time work did not differ greatly across school locations and, consequently, the proportion of young people from metropolitan schools in employment (either on a full-time or part-time basis) was less than that obtaining for the other groups.

School system

- A substantially higher proportion of students who were in government technical schools (43%) in 1980 were engaged in full-time work in 1983, compared with students from other types of schools. Of the school

systems, students from Catholic and independent schools were less engaged in full-time work compared with their government school counterparts.

- Participation in part-time work was consistent across each school system with the exception of students from government technical schools. Students who were enrolled in this type of school in 1980 participated relatively less in part-time work. This may be due to the high proportion working full-time in 1983. The relatively lower percentage of the technical school group in the "not employed" category, when considered in terms of the proportions attending and not attending educational institutions given later in Table 4.15, suggests that proportionally fewer technical school students continued formal education in the post-compulsory years.

The demographic variable ethnicity was cross-tabulated with 1983 employment status and these data are presented in Table 4.9 below.

TABLE 4.9
Employment Status at Wave 3 (1983) by Ethnicity
(percentages of respondents)

	ETHNICITY		
	Child and Parents Born in Australia (N=1030)	Child or Parent(s) Born in English Speaking Country (N=226)	Child or Parent(s) Born in Non-English Speaking Country (N=565)
Employment Status:			
Employed Full-time	27	23	16
Employed Part-time	19	22	15
Not Employed	55	55	69
TOTAL	100	100	100

Chi-square (4) = 37.17, $p < .001$

Cramer's V = 0.10

From these data a number of trends can be identified:

Ethnicity (4)

- . Young people born in non-English speaking countries or whose parents were born in such countries were under-represented in the employment categories and, consequently, over-represented in the "not employed" category. Whether these youth were more likely to attend secondary school and not combine their education with work is, at this point, not known.
- . The patterns of employment for both "Australian born" and "born in English speaking country" groups were very similar.

Measures of two family characteristics were obtained through the longitudinal study. The first, socioeconomic class (SES) background provides a measure of the status of the family in terms of parents' occupational positions and educational attainments (see Table 4.10). The second, parental expectations for their children's level of secondary school educational attainment, is another background characteristic of particular relevance to the role of families in youth's future educational and occupational activities. The relevant data, in this regard, are presented in terms of young people's perceptions about whether their parents wished them to complete secondary school (see Table 4.11).

Of importance to note are:

Socioeconomic class background (5)

- . There appears to be little general difference in the extent of employment (both part-time and full-time combined) across the three categories of SES background. However, it should be noted that both "low" and "medium" SES background young people were more likely to be employed full-time than young people from "high" SES background.

-
4. It is recognised that some lack of clarity exists in the categories "English-speaking born" and "non-English speaking born" because allocation to these categories is dependent upon either the child or a parent having been born in such categories.
 5. Analysis of father's occupational status, a single variable included in the SES index (see Appendix 2), revealed the same patterns as indicated by the data in Table 4.10. In this regard, the categories of "low", "medium" and "high" SES may be replaced, respectively, by unskilled/semi-skilled, skilled/ white collar and professional/managerial occupational classifications.

TABLE 4.10

Employment Status at Wave 3 (1983) by Socioeconomic Class Background
at Wave 1 (1980)
 (percentages of respondents)

	SOCIOECONOMIC CLASS BACKGROUND		
	Low (N=554)	Medium (N=632)	High (N=636)
Employment Status:			
Employed Full-time	24	28	17
Employed Part-time	15	17	23
Not Employed	61	56	60
TOTAL	100	100	100

Chi-square (4) = 30.32, $p < .001$

Cramer's V = 0.09

TABLE 4.11

Employment Status at Wave 3 (1983) by Parents Educational Expectations
at Wave 1 (1980)
 (percentage of respondents)

	STAGE YOUNG PEOPLE BELIEVED PARENT(S) WANTED THEM TO LEAVE SCHOOL		
	Less than Year 12 (N=345)	End of Year 12 (N=1118)	Not known by students (N=353)
Employment Status:			
Employed Full-time	46	12	32
Employed Part-time	13	20	18
Not Employed	41	68	50
TOTAL	100	100	100

Chi-square (4) = 191.69, $p < .001$

Cramer's V = 0.23

- . It is not surprising, therefore, that a greater percentage of young people from a "high" SES background (23%) were engaged in part-time work compared with young people from "low" (15%) and "medium" (17%) SES backgrounds.

Whether patterns in the employment status of young people from different SES backgrounds may be partly explained by their differential involvement in education is addressed in Section 4.4.

Parental educational expectations

- . Parents' educational expectations (as perceived by panel members in 1980) indicate that those young people who believed that their parents wanted them to leave school before the end of Year 12 were more likely to be employed on a full-time basis and less likely to be employed part-time than were both other groups.
- . More than two-thirds (68%) of those who believed their parents wanted them to complete Year 12 were not working in 1983 (i.e. Wave 3), whereas this situation obtained for less than half (41%) of those who believed their parents wanted them to leave school earlier.
- . Of the group who believed in 1980 that their parents wanted them to complete Year 12 a greater proportion, compared to the other two groups, were working part-time or not employed (most were engaged in education, see Table 4.17) in 1983. These differences are likely to be due to the greater participation of the lower or unsure parental expectation groups in full-time work.

By shifting attention to the social psychological attributes of the panel, it is possible to provide additional information about the characteristics of young people who engage in various levels of employment. The data in Table 4.12 indicate the relationship between the occupational aspirations of youth in 1980 (Wave 1) and their employment status in 1983 (Wave 3).

TABLE 4.12

Employment Status at Wave 3 (1983) by Occupational Aspirations
at Wave 1 (1980)
 (percentage of respondents)

	OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS		
	Unskilled and Semi-skilled (N=257)	Skilled White Collar (N=485)	Professional and Managerial (N=842)
<u>Employment Status at Wave 3:</u>			
Employed Full-time	28	38	14
Employed Part-time	15	12	23
Not Employed	57	50	63
TOTAL	100	100	100

Chi-square (4) = 107.36, $p < .001$

Cramer's V = 0.18

Major findings are as follows:

Occupational aspirations

- Relative to other members of the panel, young people who aspired to professional and managerial jobs (i.e. high status occupations) were substantially under-represented in full-time employment (14% compared with 38% for skilled/white collar and 28% for unskilled/semi-skilled). It is recognized that this is partially offset by the fact that these young people were over-represented in the "part-time" and "not employed" categories.
- A greater percentage (38%) of those young people who aspired to skilled/white collar occupations (i.e. medium status occupations) were employed full-time compared with other youth. This does not support the contention that young people with low occupational aspirations are more

likely to enter full-time employment. In Section 4.6 the relative influence of occupational aspirations on employment status is considered in association with other background characteristics.

Obviously this research study needs to examine psychological factors regarding education. Accordingly, two kinds of factors were investigated: data about self-perception of success at school, a central concept frequently discussed in studies concerning the effects of schooling on young people, and an attitude scale concerning students' perception of the importance and value of schooling. These data are reported in Tables 4.13 and 4.14.

TABLE 4.13

Employment Status at Wave 3 (1983) by Perceived Level of Educational
Success of Students at Wave 1 (1980)
(by percentage of respondents)

PERCEIVED SUCCESS COMPARED WITH OTHER STUDENTS AT WAVE 1			
	Below Average (N=142)	Average (N=1123)	Better than Most (N=551)
Employment Status at Wave 3:			
Employed Full-time	38	25	14
Employed Part-time	11	18	22
Not Employed	51	57	64
TOTAL	100	100	100

Chi-square (4) = 46.06, $p < .001$
Cramer's V = 0.11

Key features of these data are:

Perception of school success

- . There appears to be a positive relationship between perceived level of success at school in 1980 and working part-time in 1983; those who perceived themselves as "better than most" were more likely to have a part-time job (22%) than other students, especially those who perceived themselves as "below average" (11%). (6)
- . Also, those young people with a high perception of educational success are relatively under-represented in full-time employment.
- . Young people who see themselves as educationally unsuccessful appear to have a greater tendency to leave educational institutions and take up full-time work (see Table 4.19).

TABLE 4.14

Employment Status at Wave 3 (1983) by Students' Attitudes to the
Importance of School at Wave 1 (1980)
(percentage of respondents)

	ATTITUDES RE THE IMPORTANCE OF SCHOOL		
	Low Importance (N=194)	Indifferent (N=745)	High Importance (N=878)
Employment Status at Wave 3:			
Employed Full-time	39	28	15
Employed Part-time	13	17	21
Not Employed	48	55	64
TOTAL	100	100	100
Chi-square (4) = 69.91, p < .001			
Cramer's V = 0.14			

6. Only 8 percent of the panel considered themselves 'below average' compared with other students, a finding which indicates the need for care when interpreting these data patterns.

Importance of School

- There was a positive relationship between perceived importance of school in 1980 and employment status in 1983. Those youth for whom school held "high importance" in 1980 were over-represented in the "not working" category in 1983 (64%) and under-represented in full-time work (15%), compared with the other two groups.
- Those young people with a positive attitude towards the importance of school (i.e. "high importance") were also more likely to be engaged in part-time work than others.
- Those young people for whom school held "low importance" in 1980 were more likely to be working full-time in 1983 (39%), compared with the "high importance" group (15%).

Consideration of these background characteristics of young people who are engaged in part-time work, compared with those who work full-time and those who are not employed, provides some tentative evidence regarding differences between these groups. It was observed in Chapter 2 that several distributional biases exist with respect to the involvement of youth in part-time work. This view is generally supported by the data of Tables 4.7 to 4.14, which are based on several characteristics of Year 9 students (roughly aged 14) in 1980, when viewed in relation to the employment status of these same young people in 1983 when the panel was 17 to 18 years of age. Although elaboration of these findings is provided in the following sections of this chapter, some initial, major propositions are advanced.

The patterns of involvement in part-time work indicated that government school students in 1980 were less likely to be employed part-time in 1983, than students from the catholic and independent systems. A contributing factor to this trend may be that such students, especially government technical school students, were over-represented in full-time employment and under-represented in full-time education.

Australian born teenagers (whose parents were also born in Australia) tended to participate in part-time work slightly more than those who were born in non-English speaking countries or had a parent(s) born in such countries. Small differences were also found between the "Australian born" and "born

in English-speaking country" groups. These findings give some specification to the work of Sweet (1980a, 1981) in that they indicate that while there are differences between Australian and foreign born teenagers engaged in part-time work, a similar pattern may not hold across "ethnic" and "English-speaking" groups.

A notable difference in the extent of full-time and part-time employment for those young people from a "high" SES family background has been observed, compared with those from "medium" and "low" backgrounds. High SES young people were more likely to be working part-time than full-time, most likely because such youth were engaged to a greater extent in full-time education.

Another contributing feature of family life is parental expectations for their childrens' education. Year 9 students who believed that their parents wanted them to complete Year 12, tended to be engaged in part-time work and were engaged in full-time education more than others. In addition, youth perceptions of their present educational performance and their future occupational destinations appeared to be related to involvement in part-time work. Year 9 students who considered themselves to be more successful in school than other students, as well as those Year 9 students who aspired to high status occupational careers, had relatively higher representation in the part-time labour force than other young people. It is possible to suggest that this higher rate of participation in part-time work reflects a commitment of these young people to continue their educational participation, while combining schooling and work. These young people were noticeably under-represented in full-time work.

Data concerning attitudes of young people towards the importance of school indicate a similar trend. Compared to others, Year 9 students who viewed school as highly important were more likely to remain in education irrespective of their involvement in part-time work.

These background characteristics are associated with part-time employment and educational participation. Given that part-time work is in an activity predominantly engaged in by youth attending school, the general finding from these data are that background characteristics related to future educational participation are similarly related to involvement in part-time work.

4.4 Background characteristics and labour market/educational activities of youth

Section 4.3 examined the labour market of the panel at Wave 3 and the background characteristics of those young people working and not working. In that examination, however, the employment status of young people did not include their 1983 educational status. While employment patterns have been considered in general, it is important to examine whether part-time workers in various forms of education differ in terms of the characteristics considered above. Tables 4.15 to 4.20 provide data in the form of activity profiles (comparable to those discussed in section 4.1) in which persons working full-time, part-time and those not working are classified according to whether or not they are attending educational institutions. (7)

In addition, it is of special relevance to consider the situations of young men and women with respect to these background characteristics. Too few studies of socioeconomic status attainment have taken adequate account of differences due to gender.

Of particular interest for this research is to examine the incidence of part-time work across the various secondary school systems in Victoria. Data in Table 4.15 provide findings from the longitudinal study pertaining to this variable.

School System

- . While it was observed in section 4.3 that the extent of participation in part-time work was consistent across government high, Catholic and independent schools, the data here indicate that this does not hold when considered in terms of 1983 educational status. Young people who in 1980 attended schools in the Catholic and independent systems participated more in part-time work while attending school in 1983 (21% and 22% respectively) than their government high (15%) or government technical school (5%) counterparts.

7. In 1980 the panel were attending 26 secondary schools. By 1983 those members of the panel still engaged in education were attending approximately 150 schools/educational institutions.

TABLE 4.15

Profile at Wave 3 (1983) by School System at Wave 1 (1980) : Males and Females
(percentage of respondents)

	SCHOOL SYSTEM							
	Government High		Government Technical		Catholic		Independent	
	Male (N=421)	Female (N=610)	Male (N=261)	Female (N=62)	Male (N=90)	Female (N=212)	Male (N=107)	Female (N=69)
Profile at Wave 3:								
Full-time employment								
Attending educational institution	11	2	14	10	6	2	8	1
Not attending educational institution	15	16	32	20	11	7	10	9
Part-time employment								
Attending educational institution	17	14	5	3	18	23	20	25
Not attending educational institution	2	5	5	6	-	2	2	4
Not employed								
Attending educational institution	46	52	23	37	58	56	57	52
Not attending educational institution	9	11	21	24	7	10	4	8
TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Males - Chi-square (15) = 136.93, p < .001 Cramer's V = 0.23								
Females - Chi-square (15) = 61.44, p < .001 Cramer's V = 0.15								

- . Young people who in 1980 attended government technical schools, were at least twice as likely to be engaged in full-time employment and not attending an educational institution in 1983. Also, young people from technical schools were over-represented in the category "full-time employment - attending education". This is probably due to their engagement in apprenticeships.
- . Males attending government schools (both high and technical) in 1980 were slightly over-represented in part-time employment in 1983, compared with females attending these schools. However, the reverse was apparent in the Catholic and independent school systems.
- . A different pattern was observed for youth attending school and not employed. Female government school students in 1980 were over-represented in the "not employed - attending education" category in 1983, compared with males. In Catholic and independent schools there was little difference, although a slightly higher percentage of males were classified as not employed and engaged in education. It should be noted that for both males and females who attended technical schools in 1980, their participation in education in 1983 was substantially less than that observed across the other systems.

Data in Tables 4.16 and 4.17 provide two family background measures. Major findings concerning socioeconomic class background and parental expectations for young people's future educational activities are:

Socioeconomic Class Background

- . As previously noted there was little difference in the extent of overall employment across SES background levels. However, students from a "high" SES background who were engaged in education in 1983 were over-represented in both the part-time employment and not employed categories and under-represented in full-time employment.
- . Of the "low" SES background group 60 percent were engaged in education in 1983, compared with 80 percent for the "high" SES group.

TABLE 4.16

Profile at Wave 3 (1983) by Socioeconomic Class Background at Wave 1
(1980): Males and Females
 (percentage of respondents)

	SOCIOECONOMIC CLASS BACKGROUND					
	Low Males (N=259)	Females (N=295)	Medium Males (N=318)	Females (N=315)	High Males (N=300)	Females (N=336)
Profile at Wave 3:						
Full-time employment						
Attending educational institution	8	3	14	3	10	2
Not attending educational institution	23	14	23	15	12	11
Part-time employment						
Attending educational institution	12	9	10	17	20	21
Not attending educational institution	4	6	3	3	1	3
Not employed						
Attending educational institution	35	53	39	47	50	56
Not attending educational institution	18	15	11	14	7	7
TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100	100
Males	- Chi-square (10) = 58.18, $p < .001$					
	- Cramer's V = 0.18					
Females	- Chi-square (10) = 34.00, $p < .001$					
	Cramer's V = 0.13					

- . For each SES background level a greater proportion of females, compared to males, participated in education and were not employed. It is noteworthy that the educational participation rate for females was fairly stable across the SES levels (i.e. 53%, 47% and 56% respectively) whereas, for males, the rate increased from "low" to "high" (i.e. 35%, 39%, 50%).
- . With respect to the combination of part-time employment and education it appears as though there is a general pattern of increasing involvement for both males and females as one moves from "low" to "high" SES backgrounds.

Parental Educational Expectations

- . Almost two-thirds (61%) of those young people who believed in 1980 that their parents wanted them to complete Year 12 were not working and attending secondary schools/educational institutions in 1983. This may be compared with less than one-fifth (18%) for the early school leaver group (i.e. below Year 12) and one-third (33%) for the unsure group.
- . Those students with "high" parental expectations were more likely to be working part-time and attending school than others.
- . Proportionally, four times as many young people who believed that their parents wished them to leave school before Year 12 were by 1980 working full-time, compared with the "end of Year 12" group.
- . At each level of parental educational expectations little difference was observed between males and females for those young people working part-time and attending educational institutions in 1983.
- . Compared to males, female youth who knew of their parents' educational expectations for them, were over-represented in the situation of not working while attending educational institutions.
- . Compared to females, males who knew of their parents' educational expectations for them were over-represented in full-time work overall.

TABLE 4.17

Profile at Wave 3 (1983) by Parents' Educational Expectations at Wave 1
(1980): Males and Females
(percentage of respondents)

	PARENTAL EXPECTATIONS					
	Before Year 12		End of Year 12		Don't know	
	Males (N=210)	Females (N=135)	Males (N=480)	Females (N=638)	Males (N=179)	Females (N=175)
Profile at Wave 3:						
Full-time employment						
Attending educational institutions	19	3	7	2	13	5
Not attending educational institutions	35	31	12	6	19	27
Part-time employment						
Attending educational institutions	7	6	18	19	11	14
Not attending educational institutions	4	10	1	2	4	7
Not employed						
Attending educational institutions	15	23	56	64	36	31
Not attending educational institutions	21	27	6	7	17	16
TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100	100
Males - Chi-square (10) = 171.87, p < .001 Cramer's V = 0.31						
Females - Chi-square (10) = 215.26, p < .001 Cramer's V = 0.34						

- . Both males and females with "low" parental educational expectations participated substantially less in education in 1983 compared with the "high" group. However, in the "full-time employment - attending education" category a substantially greater proportion of males is found. This male group (most probably apprentices) tends to inflate the overall male educational participation rate.

Youth's perceived educational success in 1980 and their occupational aspirations in 1980 are two key measures which may be considered as early indications of future educational and employment careers. For example questions may be raised such as, Are these early perceptions related to later involvement in education and employment?. From Tables 4.18 and 4.19 the following may be noted:

Occupational Aspirations

- . It is evident that students who had professional and managerial aspirations are over-represented compared to other students in the joint category of not working and attending educational institutions. Further, such students are relatively under-represented in the joint category of not working and not attending educational institutions.
- . The "high" occupational aspiration group were more likely to be engaged in education overall in 1983 (82%), compared with the "medium" (57%) and "low" (48%) groups.
- . Work undertaken by the "high" aspiration students was frequently part-time in nature and undertaken while attending educational institutions (20%), compared with the other two groups (8% and 10% respectively).
- . Gender differences in employment and educational status are more apparent for those who aspired to semi-skilled and white collar jobs than for those who aspired to professional and managerial jobs.
- . For those aspiring to both unskilled/semi-skilled and skilled/white collar jobs, females were substantially over-represented in the situation of not working and attending educational institutions. This difference was not reflected for the professional/managerial group.

TABLE 4.18

Profile at Wave 3 (1983) by Occupational Aspirations at Wave 1 (1980):

Males and Females

(percentage of respondents)

	OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS					
	Unskilled & Semi-skilled		Skilled White Collar		Professional and Managerial	
	Males (N=87)	Females (N=170)	Males (N=320)	Females (N=165)	Males (N=400)	Females (N=437)
Profile at Wave 3:						
Full-time employment						
Attending educational institutions	8	2	17	4	7	2
Not attending educational institutions	27	23	29	17	11	8
Part-time employment						
Attending educational institutions	9	7	8	14	19	22
Not attending educational institutions	5	9	4	2	2	3
Not employed						
Attending educational institutions	27	42	27	48	56	57
Not attending educational institutions	25	18	16	16	6	7
TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100	100
Males - Chi-square (10) = 143.23, p < .001 Cramer's V = 0.30						
Females - Chi-square (10) = 77.06, p < .001 Cramer's V = 0.22						

- . For those aspiring to skilled/white collar jobs, males were over-represented compared to females in full-time work, while females were over-represented in part-time work in conjunction with education.

Perception of School Success

- . Almost one-third (31%) of young people who judged their success at school to be "below average" in 1980 worked on a full-time basis and were not attending school in 1983, compared to about one-fifth (18%) of those who considered themselves to be "average" and about one-tenth (9%) of those who considered themselves to be "better than most".
- . The group who considered themselves "better than most" were over-represented in education (84%), compared with the "average" group (64%) and the "below average" group (41%). The "better than most" group were also over-represented in the category of part-time employment while involved in education (20%) compared with the "average" (13%) and "below average" (6%) groups.
- . At all levels of perceived success, females were under-represented in full-time employment and were over-represented in the category of not working and engaged in education.
- . There appear to be little gender differences in part-time employment while attending education across the levels of perceived school success.

It appears from the findings reported above that factors relating to perceptions of school, e.g. school success and parental educational expectations, distinguish between those in education, whether employed part-time or not employed, and those in the other categories. The data reported in Table 4.20 provide further evidence about the influence of Year 9 school-related background characteristics on the future educational and employment activities of the panel.

TABLE 4.19

Profile at Wave 3 (1983) by Perceived Success at Wave 1 (1980):

Males and Females

(percentage of respondents)

PERCEIVED SUCCESS COMPARED WITH OTHER STUDENTS						
	Below Average		Average		Better than Most	
	Males (N=80)	Females (N=62)	Males (N=500)	Females (N=623)	Males (N=292)	Females (N=259)
Profile at Wave 3:						
Full-time employment						
Attending educational institution	10	2	12	3	8	3
Not attending educational institution	34	28	21	15	11	7
Part-time employment						
Attending educational institution	6	5	11	15	21	19
Not attending educational institution	2	10	3	5	2	-
Not employed						
Attending educational institution	22	34	38	49	53	64
Not attending educational institution	26	21	14	13	6	7
TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100	100
Males - Chi-square (10) = 85.66, p < .001 Cramer's V = 0.22						
Females - Chi-square (10) = 66.26, p < .001 Cramer's V = 0.19						

Importance of School

- . From these data there appears to be a positive, linear relationship between perceived importance of school at Year 9 in 1980 and the likelihood of young people's participation in education in 1983. That is, 37 percent of the "low importance" group were in education in 1983, while 62 percent of the "indifferent" and 82 percent of the "high importance" groups were engaged in education in 1983.
- . A similar trend was observed for the "part-time employment - attending education" category. Of the "high importance" group 20 percent were employed part-time, compared with 13 percent of the "indifferent" and 6 percent of the "low importance" groups.
- . Young people who viewed school to be relatively unimportant in 1980, were over-represented in forms of employment overall and in the category "not working - not in education" in 1983.
- . At each level of the importance of school scale, little difference was found between males and females in the extent of their 1983 educational participation.

Other Characteristics

In Section 4.3 it was suggested that those students born in a non-English speaking country (or whose parent(s) was born in a non-English speaking country), were more likely to attend secondary school full-time and not combine education and work. From an analysis of the activity profile by ethnicity it would appear that this view is supported. Fifty eight percent of this group were engaged in education and not employed in 1983, compared with 47 percent of the "born in English-speaking country" group and 41 percent of "Australian born" teenagers. Further, this analysis revealed no gender differences in part-time employment while in education, across the various categories of ethnicity.

TABLE 4.20

Profile at Wave 3 (1983) by Students' Attitudes to the Importance of
School at Wave 1 (1980)
 (percentage of respondents)

	ATTITUDES RE THE IMPORTANCE OF SCHOOL					
	Low Importance		Indifferent		High Importance	
	Males (N=106)	Females (N=88)	Males (N=366)	Females (N=379)	Males (N=395)	Females (N=483)
Profile at Wave 3:						
Full-time employment						
Attending educational institution	11	4	14	2	8	3
Not attending educational institution	31	30	23	17	12	7
Part-time employment						
Attending educational institution	7	4	11	14	19	20
Not attending educational institution	4	12	2	7	2	1
Not employed						
Attending educational institution	20	27	36	46	53	61
Not attending educational institution	26	24	14	14	6	8
TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100	100
Males - Chi-square (10) = 95.93, p < .001 Cramer's V = 0.24						
Females - Chi-square (10) = 123.99, p < .001 Cramer's V = 0.26						

Similar analysis for school location indicates that some elaboration of the point made in section 4.3 is required; while involvement in part-time work did not differ greatly across school locations, young people attending metropolitan and country-urban schools in 1980 were more likely to be working part-time and attending school (17% and 15% respectively) in 1983 than country youth (10%).

4.5 Summary

While it is difficult to adequately summarize all of the data presented in this section, it is possible to identify certain prominent features of the part-time work experience of young people with respect to the background characteristics.

In general, background characteristics including those which describe family, school and social psychological dimensions were found to be related to participation in education; those young people who were identified as "high" with respect to these dimensions were more likely to be participating in education in 1983, compared with others. Conversely, participation in overall employment was greater for those who, on the basis of these Year 9 background characteristics, were identified as "low" on the family, school and social psychological dimensions.

Part-time work is an activity mainly occurring within the student population. Some young people, however, hold part-time jobs and are not engaged in education. The evidence from this study indicates that these young people have similar background characteristics to others who have no formal involvement in education. (8) On the other hand, those young people who combine education and part-time employment have background characteristics similar to those young people who were in education and not working. This part-time employment group were more likely to be young people from high socioeconomic class backgrounds, with high occupational aspirations, high perceptions of school success, regarded school as important and believed that their parents wished them to complete secondary education.

8. It is recognised that other factors are likely to determine whether young people not in education hold full-time employment, part-time employment or are not employed and that this is an issue which requires research and policy attention.

Certain distinctions between males and females were also observed. It appears that young women of between 17 and 18 years of age participate more in part-time employment and/or education than young men of the same age (although as shown in Table 4.15 this difference is subject to variations according to different school systems). Irrespective of levels relating to SES background, parental educational expectations, youth's occupational aspirations and perceived success at school, young women were more likely to continue education and be not employed than young men. (For the background factor, "importance of school", no discernible differences between males and females were noted).

In general, these background factors do not provide any generalizable distinctions between young men and women in terms of their overall participation in part-time employment. However, for both groups these background factors do suggest that those young people who are more "connected" to educational and occupational career development (as indicated by high SES background, high parental educational expectations, high perceptions of their school success and the importance of school) are more likely to participate in part-time employment and education or education alone.

This general observation is consistent with a large body of research literature which has demonstrated that "selection" procedures, be they based in family, education, employment or the community more generally, serve to sequentially reinforce "continued" success for some - the so-called connected young people - and not for others (e.g. Boudon, 1974; Polk, *et al.*, 1981; Rosenbaum, 1976). Whether young people hold the experiences of part-time work as important for their futures will be explored, in part, in the following chapter.

4.6 The combined effects of background characteristics on employment and education

The previous section discussed a number of bivariate relationships between background characteristics of young people and the extent of their involvement in part-time work. However, the extent of these relationships cannot be judged in isolation. Many of these variables are themselves inter-related in some way and their apparent relationship to labour force participation may be an artefact of this interdependence.

In order to ascertain the relative contribution of each of these variables in explaining the panel's employment activities in 1983 a multivariate technique is required. The technique of discriminant function analysis was employed to find the linear combination of variables which best separated the categories of the educational/employment profile.

This study has argued in Chapters 1 and 2 that the part-time work phenomenon should be viewed in terms of the developmental processes of young people in transition, particularly the influences of family, school and work on the social and personal development of youth. Consequently, an a priori ordering of the background variables into hierarchical blocks was conducted. These blocks, in order, were organised on the basis of individual (i.e. gender, ethnicity), family (i.e. SES background, parental educational expectations), school (i.e. school system, geographical location) and social psychological (i.e. perceived school success, occupational aspirations and attitudes concerning the importance of school) aspects of transition. Therefore, a stepwise discriminant function analysis was conducted.

(9)

The initial discriminant function analysis (see Appendix 3) indicated that substantial differences between the groups classified according to their education and work activities in 1983, appeared to be basically due to their educational status. Although five functions are theoretically possible to distinguish between the six groups identified by the activity profile, only two were significant.

The first function, which explained 87 percent of the variance between the groups, only meaningfully separated the employment related categories for those attending school in 1983 but not the employment categories for those who were no longer engaged in education. Apart from the "full-time employed - attending education" group, who tend to have characteristics similar to those of school leavers, this function essentially describes the background characteristics of continued educational participation. Found at one end of the function are youth who tend to believe that school is important, believe that their parents

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9. The method selects the most important variables in each block, working through the blocks in order of precedence. This provided optimum discrimination between the groups, taking into account the ordering and making a parsimonious selection of the most relevant variables. Categorical variables were dismantled into "dummy" variables in order to meet the restrictions of interval level dependent variables required by the analysis.

have high educational expectations of them, are from a high SES background, have aspirations for high status occupations and perceive themselves to be more successful in school than their peers. Such young people, the so-termed "connected" youth, are more likely to continue their education. Conversely, the school leavers, and to some extent full-time workers at school (the majority of whom were apprentices) tended to have opposite characteristics and were more likely to attend technical schools in 1980.

The second discriminant function, explained an additional 7 percent of the variance, and effectively described the characteristics that identify the "apprentice" group. This group were mainly males and relative to those young people not in education, tend to regard school as more important and come from higher SES backgrounds.

The initial analysis extracted the determinants of educational participation. In order to focus on the 1983 employment activities of the panel, subsequent analyses were conducted for the employment categories. The first analysis considered the categories of part-time employment and not employed for those young people who were not attending school. This analysis revealed that there was no statistically significant discriminant function which distinguished between out of school youth part-time workers and those who were not employed. While it appears that these two groups tend to have similar characteristics, the longitudinal data did not distinguish between those actively seeking employment and those who were not. Some differences may have been masked because this distinction between both categories was unavailable. Further research is needed to examine whether a relationship exists between part-time work/not employed and actively seeking employment.

The second analysis comparing part-time workers attending school with part-time workers not attending school, produced a significant discriminant function. Essentially, the findings of this function replicate those obtained in the initial analysis which compared the six categories of the education/employment profile. The primary distinction between the two groups of youth who were working part-time in 1983, appears to be based on those background characteristics which tend to be associated with educational participation. This distinction means that the part-time work phenomenon must be viewed as one which involves two distinct groups of young people; those who appear

"connected" to education and those who appear to have become "disconnected". It should be recalled, however, that the "disconnected" youth were a minority group of the part-time workers in the longitudinal panel.

The next stage of the analysis compared students who worked part-time with students who were not employed. Although the discriminant function was statistically significant (see Appendix 3), classification analysis revealed that only 60 percent of student part-time workers and 41 percent of students who were not employed could be correctly classified. As a consequence, there is considerable overlap of the distributions of background characteristics for both groups and the function is less useful in predicting non-workers in school than student part-time workers. However, it appears that student part-time workers compared with student non-workers, tend to have the background characteristics of higher SES and higher occupational aspirations. In addition, migrant youth from English-speaking countries and youth who attended Catholic schools in 1980 were more likely to be working part-time than other youth. Youth who were in school in 1983 and attended technical schools in 1980 were more likely to not work part-time, as were 1983 students who came from families with non-English speaking backgrounds and students who attended country schools in 1980.

It must be emphasized that the discriminant function analyses reported here provide an indication of the tendency of part-time workers to exhibit certain background characteristics. These analyses do not depict the extent of involvement in part-time work with respect to these background characteristics. Data concerning the relationship between the incidence of part-time work and the background characteristics were discussed in the previous sections.

Finally, in considering the inter-relationships of the individual, family, school and social psychological characteristics it seems that youth in school are more "connected" than youth not in school and that, in general, students who work part-time appear to be more "connected" than students who do not work. However, part-time workers who are not in education and young people who are not in education and not working appear similarly "disconnected". It would seem that the part-time work phenomenon needs to be viewed differently for in school and out of school youth. For those young people in school, part-time work appears to be an extension of their "connectedness", whereas for out of school youth it may reflect their inability to obtain full-time employment.

4.7 A Post-Script

Successful completion of secondary schooling may be regarded as a primary goal in the transition process for "connected" young people. The attainment of this goal is usually seen as a necessary precursor to the acquisition of high status educational and occupational careers.

The 1983 Victorian Higher School Certificate (HSC) results for those panel members who attempted HSC (28% of the original Year 9 panel) provide some additional information about student part-time workers. The HSC success rates of student part-time workers and students not employed were, respectively, 79 percent and 74 percent. (This difference was not statistically significant.) It seems that students who work part-time perform at least as well as students who were not employed.

Most young people in both groups attained the primary goal of satisfactorily completing their secondary schooling.

CHAPTER 5

PART-TIME WORK: INTERVIEWS WITH YOUNG PEOPLE

This chapter presents data collected from interviews with young people engaged in part-time work. The interview data add another dimension to the quantitative data derived from the VISE longitudinal study. The qualitative information gained from this approach enables an illumination of key issues regarding part-time work based on the first-hand experiences of a group of young part-time workers.

As described in Chapter 3, two groups of young people were interviewed. The first sections of this chapter (5.1 to 5.4) present the findings of interviews conducted with a sample drawn from the longitudinal panel. The final section is concerned with data collected by a student research team who interviewed a group of secondary school students who were working part-time in November 1983.

5.1 Longitudinal panel interview sample

During December 1983 interviews were conducted with a sample of youth who had been identified through wave 3 of the longitudinal study as being engaged in part-time work (defined as work entailing between 1 and 34 hours per week).

An examination of the wave 3 respondents of this longitudinal study identified 338 persons (19%) who were engaged in part-time work. This percentage is about one-third greater than the August 1983 figure of 12.5 percent for the 15-19 year old population provided by the ABS. This discrepancy may be due to the fact that in 1983 the panel was of Year 12 school age (about 17 to 18 years), a time at which there is an increase in the extent of participation in part-time work.

A sample of just less than 10 percent of this group (i.e. N=30) was selected for interview. Although an attempt was made to obtain an interview sample which adequately represented the relative proportions of males/females, in education/not in education, and country/suburban young people within the sample, this was not achieved. The major determinant of the nature of the sample was

availability to attend an interview during December, 1983. Thus, the sample is not, strictly speaking, a statistically representative one but, instead, adds to our knowledge by supplying qualitative material which was otherwise unavailable.

Although some description of the interview sample is provided in Chapter 3, the number of interviewees according to certain key characteristics are described in Tables 5.1 and 5.2.

TABLE 5.1
Age and Gender of Interview Sample
(number of interviewees)

	AGE		TOTAL
	17	18	
Gender:			
Male	5	5	10
Female	12	8	20
TOTAL	17	13	30

TABLE 5.2
Educational Status and Geographical Location of Interview Sample
(number of interviewees)

	EDUCATIONAL STATUS		TOTAL
	In School	Not in School	
Location:			
Suburban	17	3	20
Country	4	6	10
TOTAL	21	9	30

It may be noted that within the interview sample, females are over-represented in part-time work, compared with the proportion of female part-time workers (57%) identified by the wave 3 questionnaire. Although the data in Chapter 4 showed that there was little difference in the background characteristics of young male and female part-time workers, the over-representation of females in this sample does make it necessary to exercise some caution in the interpretation of findings which may be related to gender differences.

More than two-thirds of the interview sample (70%) were still attending a school at the time of interview, with most of the students attending schools located in the suburban (or metropolitan) areas of Melbourne. This proportion of in-school youth who worked part-time is less than that found from the survey data. The under-representation of in-school youth is a result of the need to obtain a sufficient number of interviewees who were working part-time and not in school. From the 1980 questionnaires, it may be noted that these 30 youth were attending government (43%), catholic (37%) and independent (20%) schools.

The time of data collection for wave 3 of the longitudinal study was approximately 9 months prior to the time these interviews were conducted. In the interim, some changes in the job status of the interviewees had occurred. The schedule was designed, therefore, to gather both current and retrospective information about their part-time work in 1983. The employment status of the sample in December 1983 was as follows:

- 4 were working full time
- 19 were working part-time in the same job as they had in March 1983
- 4 were working part-time in a different job
- 3 were not working.

These data indicate stability in jobs held by the group, as nearly two-thirds of the group were still working part-time in the same job 9 months later.

The interviews conducted by research staff were based on an interview schedule prepared by the Research Section of VISE. Sections 5.2 to 5.4 which follow, describe and discuss the findings from the interviews under three major headings. These are:

Nature of part-time work undertaken;
Acquiring part-time work;
Part-time work and the transition from youth to adulthood
 economic independence
 education
 career development and work
 personal and social development through part-time work.

5.2 Nature of part-time work undertaken

While a quantitative picture of several key characteristics of part-time work undertaken by the 338 youth of the longitudinal panel is provided in Chapter 4, it is important to complement these data by considering both the nature of part-time work undertaken by the interview sample and the tasks and skills which the respondents considered were required in their part-time work activities.

5.2.1 Type of Jobs

From the data gathered through the interviews, it was found that the majority of young people (70%) were working in jobs associated with the retail industries, including food/drink businesses.

The interview sample is similar in this respect to the longitudinal sample, and similar patterns can be noted in ABS statistics and in the studies by Anderson, (1983a) and Sweet (1980a, 1980b) and others. This pattern has basis in long-term structural changes of the Australian labour market, particularly those which effect youth (Gregory and Stricker, 1981; Paterson and Mackay, 1982).

Although the type of work actually undertaken by the group varied considerably (e.g. sales assistant, greenkeeper, busker, shipping clerk), those in the retail and food/drink industries typically reported that they were employed in the capacity of sales assistants or cashiers. It could be said that the interview group was primarily engaged in non-career path positions in the labour force. The range of such positions in these industries tends to be small and appears to offer little opportunity for young people in terms of occupational mobility to other industries or advancement within the same industry.

5.2.2 Time Requirements

Part-time work requires an additional time commitment from students, which may compete with the time they have available to devote to their educational and/or leisure pursuits. Interview data indicate that young people believed a part-time job did reduce the time available for schoolwork and leisure activities. However, from data presented later in this chapter, it appears that from the point of view of students the time requirement for part-time work was not a significant problem with respect to their educational performance.

All interviewees were asked on what days they worked, how many shifts they worked, the average hours worked per shift and the average hours worked per week (including weekends). The quantifiable data are presented in the following tables and are reported separately for those who were in school and those who were not in school.

TABLE 5.3
Work Patterns For Those In School
(number of interviewees)

No. shifts/week	1	2	3	4	5	6
No. respondents	6	6	6	2	-	1
Av. hours/shift	2-3	4-5	6-7	8-9	10+	-
No. respondents	4	11	2	4	-	-
Av. hours/week	2-4	5-8	9-11	12-14	15-17	18+
No. respondents	3	7	3	2	2	4

The work patterns shown in Table 5.3 indicate that students tend to work between 1 and 3 shifts per week for 2 to 5 hours per shift. The average number of hours the students spend in part-time employment during a week ranges from 2 to 18 or more hours, with the majority of students (62%) spending between 2 and 11 hours per week in part-time work. In summary, most students spend approximately the equivalent of one school day, or more, engaged in part-time work. This finding may be relevant to policy initiatives concerned with the amount of time young people are engaged in formal institutional activities (in both an educational and employment sense).

In section 5.4.2 the relationship between education and part-time work is discussed. It should be noted here, however, that 52 percent of student respondents indicated that having a part-time job meant they had less time for their school work. This was viewed by the respondents in terms of substituting time available for school work by time required for part-time work. Also, several respondents suggested that their part-time job caused them to be 'too tired to study' at times when they would otherwise have been doing school work. Again, however, as illustrated in Table 5.5, 76 percent of the student interviewees reported that part-time work had not affected their school performance.

TABLE 5.4
Work Patterns For Those Not In School
(number of interviewees)

No. shifts/week	1	2	3	4	5	6
No. respondents	-	1	1	4	2	1
Av. hours/shift	2-3	4-5	6-7	8-9	10+	-
No. respondents	3	5	-	-	-	-
Av. hours/week	2-4	5-8	9-11	12-14	15-17	18+
No. respondents	-	1	1	1	1	4

As might be anticipated, those interviewees not in school tended to work more shifts per week and, consequently, devoted more hours per week to part-time work. Regarding average hours per shift, it is of interest that 6 student respondents worked for a greater average number of hours per shift than any of the respondents not attending school. These findings are consistent with the panel data in Chapter 4 which indicated that part-time workers not attending educational institutions were likely to be working up to 34 hours per week, and that they generally worked, on average, more hours than student part-time workers.

In addition to establishing the number of shifts and hours worked, the respondents were also asked on what days they worked. Of the 21 still at school, 19 stated that they worked during the weekend (this includes Friday

evenings), 11 worked after school hours and 1 claimed that he/she worked part-time during school hours. From the interview sample's responses it is reasonable to expect that if a student works part-time after school hours, he or she will also work part-time on the weekend.

5.2.3. Tasks Performed and Skills Learned in Part-time Work

As stated in the literature review (Chapter 2), part-time work should be examined in terms of the transition from youth to adulthood. This process of transition is seen to encompass individuals' education, training, employment and social development. As such, it is appropriate to look at the jobs undertaken by these young people, particularly the actual work tasks required and the skills which are learned or developed during part-time work.

While those interviewed were engaged in part-time jobs across a range of industries their comments, generally, support a view that part-time work undertaken by young people tends to be routine and repetitive and, although certain skills are learned on the job, these skills tend to be basic and non-transferable to other positions. (1)

As one young person commented when asked about their present part-time job,

'I'd never do it full-time, it's a pretty dead-end sort of thing.'

Although the young people offered both positive and negative comments about their jobs, there was an emphasis on the 'boring and repetitive' nature of part-time work. At the same time it should be acknowledged that some of the young people regarded their work as interesting and/or enjoyable, in particular because the job provided them with the chance to meet and communicate with a range of people (especially adults).

The 21 young people who were working in the retail and food/drink industries typically stated that the type of work they did involved such tasks as selling (generally identified as working on a cash register), ordering, stocktaking, and 'customer service and assistance'. The other young people in the sample were

1. It is recognised that in many respects there may be little difference in this regard between part-time and full-time work for some young people. Further, routine, repetitive work is equally applicable to other industries and is undertaken by many adults.

engaged in a variety of other jobs which required a variety of skills, but such jobs may be considered characteristic of relatively low status work (e.g. lawn mowing, typing, cleaning).

Comments from the interviewees provide an indication of some of the views of those young people working in the retail and food/drink industries:

'Basically it's just serving customers, but I'm supposed to clean-up the shop at the same time while the other girls serve. I keep bringing up baskets of rolls, bagging things, slicing bread. Occasionally I do a bit of cooking. Bake some biscuits, that sort of thing.'

'Just serve customers mainly. There wasn't any bookwork or anything in (the job). I just cleaned up.'

'I'm not just a cashier. I do put on stock if it's not too busy ... mark all the prices ... (serve) in the deli.'

As mentioned above, the skills learned or developed through the job tend to be job-specific and basic. The most common skill which the young people believed they had acquired was the use of a cash register. But as one of the respondents suggested, it's 'nothing really different to learn. Mostly just common sense'. Other skills which may be regarded as being of a technical kind were mentioned by a few respondents who suggested that they had developed skills such as stock management, bookkeeping and weighing and measuring chemicals. (These skills would most likely be regarded as relevant to school curricula.)

Several respondents believed that they had also developed other work-related skills such as punctuality, responsibility and communication through dealing with customers. These kinds of skills are of a different order from technical-type skills and are addressed in the following section.

5.3 Acquiring part-time work

How do young people actually find a part-time job? According to the information acquired through the interviews, there appear to be two main strategies which are successfully used; either the job was acquired as a consequence of personal contacts such as parents and friends (17 interviewees) or by canvassing potential employers through personal application (11 interviewees).

Typically, those who relied on personal contacts responded with comments such as, '(A) friend told me (about the job). I went to see the manager who lived up the corner'. Personal application, a strategy which does not include an application in response to a formal, advertised position, was used by a substantial proportion of the interview group. Only one interviewee reported obtaining part-time work through a formal response to an advertised position. One other young person was self-employed part-time as a busker.

These findings indicate the importance of informal personal contacts for youth to obtain part-time work. Further, the personal application strategy points to the commitment and initiative of young people to acquire a part-time job. Eight of the twelve respondents who used this strategy stated that they got their job by actually canvassing (either in person or by personal letter) department stores, shops and so on until they were employed. As one respondent put it:

'As soon as I turned 15 I put my name down everywhere and kept pestering them. (I) received a reply soon after I turned 16.'

The other three young people who used this strategy each obtained their part-time work in a different manner (through the school careers teacher, as a result of a school-based work experience engagement and through the local CES office).

These interview data suggest that schools and the formal recruitment processes of business and industry play a less effective role in providing young people with part-time jobs, than the personal initiative and social connections of youth. The role of social contacts suggests that inequities in the processes of acquiring part-time work may exist. Whether such possible inequities would favour particular groups of youth cannot be commented on from the evidence of this study.

It is recognised that job placement by schools is not, nor should be, a responsibility of the education system. If such inequity exists and is to be redressed by revamping the formal mechanisms of job recruitment and placement, remedy measures should not be located within the education system.

Finally, it appears that part-time work (as opposed to full-time work) for some youth who have left school, is the only available employment option, given current economic conditions. As one young person put it:

'I was after full-time and I was on unemployment benefits, so they said there's no full-time at the moment but part-time work is there if you want it. So I took that.'

Rather than continuing to receive unemployment benefits, this young person decided that a part-time job was a step towards securing full-time employment. Further, 8 of the 9 "out-of-school" part-time workers reported that money (including money needed to assist the family) was the primary reason for undertaking part-time employment. For these young people part-time work was a better option than not working. Taken together, these two sources of evidence may raise some doubt about the unemployment benefit thesis discussed by Gregory and Stricker (1981).

5.4 Part-time work and the transition from youth to adulthood

As commented on throughout this report, part-time work is an issue that has implications for the transition from youth to adulthood. This transition process is complex, encompassing the institutional experiences of young people which impact on their present and future sense of personal identity. In this section aspects concerning economics, education and training, employment and social development are considered by drawing together information obtained through the interviews. As these aspects are inter-related it is inevitable that some overlap in the discussion occurs.

5.4.1 Economic Independence

Without question, the major incentive for taking a part-time job appears to be a desire and/or need to earn money (26 out of 30 interviewees gave such a reason).

Some typical quotes from the interviews (all from respondents still at school) were:

'I need the money.'

or

'Basically to earn some money ... same as anyone (who) gets a job I suppose.'

Others said,

'... to get some extra money more than anything ... money to go out with ... spending money.'

or

'I wanted to earn some extra money and not to depend on my parents if I wanted to go out or anything ... buy my own clothes and things.'

These quotations suggest that some degree of economic independence is a desired outcome of part-time work. By earning money young people are able to buy clothes, pay for their entertainment and in some cases pay for major items (e.g. a car). In this sense, it may be argued that money earned through part-time work is a form of contribution to the family economy. From the interviews, it was apparent that the young people believed that they were easing the financial burden on their parents by contributing, at least in part, to their own expenses. Almost one-quarter of the interviewees reported that they paid "board" to their parents and most of these young people were not attending school.

Earning money appears to represent an important transition point. By obtaining a degree of financial independence, young people are more able to participate in and perhaps identify more closely with what might be loosely termed "youth culture". Further, part-time work may contribute to young people regarding themselves as having adult status since financial independence is generally associated with adulthood.

5.4.2 Education, Career Development and Work

Career development is commonly taken to include education, training and employment. In order to gain a perspective about these complex issues it is necessary first to consider the educational lives of these young people.

Three of the interview questions were more specifically concerned with eliciting responses about the perceived effect of part-time work on educational activities. The pattern of responses to these questions is given in Table 5.5.

It should be noted that these questions were not applicable to all interviewees, because at the time of interviewing some had left school.

TABLE 5.5
Responses to Part-Time Work and Education Questions
(number of interviewees)

	NO. RESPONSES	
	Yes	No
Question:		
1. Do you consider yourself to be		
. keen about your studies?	14	3
. good at your schoolwork?	17	1
2. Do you think your present part-time work		
has affected your school performance?	6	19
3. If planning to enter tertiary education,		
do you plan to continue working part-time?	14	2

From this table, it is clear that most of the interviewees considered themselves to be capable and interested students (a feature of "connectedness") and that engagement in part-time work did not, in their view, affect their performance at school. Of the 16 interviewees who planned to undertake tertiary studies, 14 stated that they intended to continue working part-time. This is not surprising given that interviewees were working because they needed money (because of financial needs and/or a desire for a sense of independence); a situation which would be unlikely to alter if they entered tertiary education. (2)

2. It may be noted that at the time of the data collection for wave 1 of the longitudinal study, when the interviewees were in Year 9, 20 of the 30 planned to undertake tertiary studies in the areas of teaching or commerce, 8 planned to enter an apprenticeship and 2 intended entering nursing.

Clearly, the majority of interviewees did not believe that having a part-time job threatened their success at school. Several respondents even suggested that having a part-time job gave them something to do in addition to studying their school subjects. As one interviewee put it,

'I was at a greater advantage with my studies because I had money. I could use my leisure as I wanted ... (the) relaxation helped my study'.

In this regard, however, another interviewee commented,

'I can't really tell because I don't know if I'd have done better without the job. I think it has given me a break (from) my schoolwork which has been helpful. It might have been good or bad. I'm not sure ... my mother tried to talk me out of working, but I didn't want to ... I have heard of other friends who'd done HSC and had a part-time job and they advised me to keep the job because it gives you a break which I thought was good. But I don't think I would have taken the job just for the break if I wasn't getting the money (also).'

The interview data indicated that part-time work provides money and/or a break from educational activities (which may be considered a secondary connection to education). A few young people, however, suggested that their part-time jobs had helped them to better understand subjects being studied at school. (Retail positions offered some assistance for those who were studying commercial subjects.) Six of the respondents offered the opinion that there was some connection between the skills developed through their education (e.g. numeracy) and the skills they were required to demonstrate in their part-time jobs.

For example:

'having to do the "red light" specials you have to do percentages in your head quickly, so it has helped my maths skills.'

Only one respondent offered what may be considered to be a primary connection. This young person intended undertaking a business management course and her employer was providing her with training in the pricing and buying aspects of business.

For some young people part-time work provided work-related skills which extended beyond those of technical competence. As one young person suggested:

'Seeing as I want to be a teacher I think (the job has) helped me ... I know lots of people and I've learned to communicate with a whole range of different people.'

From Table 5.5, it would appear that those young people who see themselves as successful students (i.e. the so-called "connected") also enter part-time employment. Not all young people, however, are successful in secondary school. It is well established that failure in secondary school generally restricts the future educational and occupational careers of youth (e.g. Connell *et al.*, 1975; Wright and Hedlam, 1976). Also, such failure acts for some as a disincentive to continue education rather than as an incentive to enter employment, i.e. school failure deters many young people from continuing their education rather than employment attracting them.

As one young person put it:

'I was going to stay on at school but by the time I had finished form 5 there'd be no point in doing form 6 because I wouldn't have passed it. I only just passed form 5 and I just didn't want to continue on with school.'

Career development is both an educational and employment issue. The occupational aspirations of young people and their relationship to part-time work are important to consider in this context. At the time of wave 1 data collection (1980), the work aspirations of the interview sample were given as:

Unskilled and semi-skilled	- 4 respondents	
Skilled and white collar	- 3 respondents	
Professional and managerial	- 20 respondents.	(3)

Clearly, the substantial proportion of interviewees when they were in Year 9, aspired to what may be termed as high status full-time jobs. This is consistent with the notion of "connectedness" (advanced in Chapter 4) for in-school part-time workers; the young people interviewed considered themselves successful at school and also aspired to high status occupations.

3. Three individuals did not respond to this item on the wave 1 questionnaire.

Several interview questions were included in order to elicit comments relating to the contributions of part-time employment to the career aspirations of young people. A summary of the response patterns to these questions is given in Table 5.6. As for Table 5.5, not all questions were applicable to the complete interview sample.

The majority of young people (83%) responded that they liked their present part-time job. While there was a range of different reasons given, the most common were that the young people enjoyed meeting and working with different people, the job provided an outlet other than school and, of course, it provided them with money which could be used in ways which they considered appropriate. As one interviewee indicated,

'I enjoy it, the people I work with, making friends with the customers. (Also I) love the money.'

TABLE 5.6
Responses to Questions Related to Careers
(number of interviewees)

	NO. RESPONSES	
	Yes	No
Question:		
1. Do you like your present part-time job?	25	2
2. If offered a full-time position the same as your part-time employment, would you accept it?	8	22
3. If able to obtain full-time work tomorrow would you leave school?	4	13
4. Do you see your part-time job as leading to a related full-time job?	8	17
5. Does your part-time job give you skills which will assist in a full-time position?	22	6

Though inter-related, the contribution of part-time work appears to be more in terms of personal/social development and a measure of economic independence, than a structural development of career paths.

The two young people who said that they didn't like their part-time job, reiterated the importance of money for continuing to work part-time:

'...it's boring but I need the money.'

'... because of the money and, especially during the holidays, it gets me out of the rut of not doing anything ... and keeps me from getting too bored.'

The responses to question 2 indicate that most of the young people (73%) were not likely to accept full-time employment in the same area as their present part-time employment. Of this group, 82 percent were still attending school. Seventy-six percent of those still in school responded that they would not leave school in order to take up full-time employment if it was available (question 3).

These findings support the view that for many young people attending school, the option of full-time employment does not act as an incentive to interrupt their schooling. Continued participation in education may be regarded as a necessary part of their future career development (either in terms of tertiary education or employment). However, for some young people the option of full-time employment is attractive. Three of the in-school group and 5 of the out-of-school group reported that they would accept a full-time position in the same job as their present part-time work (question 2) and 4 out of 17 students said that they would leave school if they were 'able to obtain a full-time job tomorrow'. Whether the present lack of jobs generates an attitude of "I'd better take a job while I can get one" is worthy of further investigation.

The responses to questions 4 and 5 support the notion that, while the nature of part-time work for youth may contribute to personal development which will ultimately contribute to one's capability in the world of work, the positions themselves are not career path oriented. While 79 percent of those who responded to question 5 felt that part-time work gave them skills which will assist in full-time positions, only 22 percent of students saw their part-time jobs leading to related full-time work. Perhaps out-of-school youth are more likely to view part-time work as a step in their working careers as 57 percent responded that their part-time jobs were related to future full-time employment.

As identified from the literature discussed in Chapter 2, part-time work for young people is typically a short-term option with no structural linkage to long-term occupational careers. They are jobs predominantly within the secondary labour market (e.g. Doeringer and Piore, 1971). Consequently, it is not surprising that the interview group, particularly the students, saw little connection between working part-time in 1983 and their future employment intentions, irrespective of whether they may be described as oriented toward high status work destinations. (4)

Two comments reinforce this proposition:

'I would rather do something a bit more challenging and on a full-time basis.'

'A part-time job in a supermarket is not sort of a very good job, you know. I'd like something better.'

This lack of a structural bridge between part-time and full-time employment is perhaps more complex for young women than for young men. For the labour market generally, the part-time mode of employment is well established and has grown more rapidly for young women than for young men (see DEYA, 1983). A feature of growth in female participation in the workforce has been the growth in part-time employment especially among married women (Stricker and Sheehan, 1981). The combination of the socialisation of young women into accepting that marriage and/or motherhood and employment are competing commitments, and that the opportunity structure of the female labour market tends to be restrictive supports this trend.

At the same time this combination reinforces the necessity of recognising that the pathways into adult roles, including employment, differ for males and females. For many adult females part-time work has been the accepted, rather than the aberrant, mode.

Although only a few comments about these competing commitments were offered during the interviews, these came predictably from young women.

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4. Some young people, however, indicated that they would be willing to remain in the retail sales industry on a full-time basis.

'I'm getting married next year, so I won't have a working career.'

'I want to work full-time unless I have a family.'

'Until I get married or until I have children I just think I'd be better working full-time than part-time.'

As shown in Table 5.6, the young people considered that their part-time job equipped them with skills which would assist them in a full-time position. However, the group did not consider that the type of part-time work they undertook would be a 'good full-time job', but they did believe that the experience - especially the communication skills - they gained would be of benefit to them in a full-time job. This raises an important paradox. Part-time jobs, of a secondary labour market kind, provide little technical skill development and are unlikely to facilitate long-term career prospects. On the other hand, work is valued because it represents adult status and offers young people an opportunity to assume adult roles through their identification as contributing members to a work oriented society. Such roles have been argued to provide young people with a sense of usefulness, a sense of competence, a sense of independence and a sense of personal power - i.e. "quality of life" (e.g. Pearl *et al.*, 1978). Herein may lie the essential value of part-time work.

It is postulated that part-time work for full-time students needs to be understood in quite different terms from part-time work as a substitute for full-time employment for young people in search of work and otherwise unemployed. Part-time jobs for students appear to represent an extension and development of traditional part-time jobs and thus continue to have little structural connection with the career development of those who complete secondary schooling.

Further, there was no evidence from this study that part-time work, as a substitute for full-time work, enhances career prospects of those in the labour market. While not providing structural links to long-term employment options part-time work, nonetheless, may provide youth with a sense of being valued and appears to contribute to their sense of personal identity.

5.4.3 Personal and social development through part-time work

With respect to their personal and social development, respondents were asked to indicate the degree to which part-time work had affected them in a range of aspects (listed in Table 5.7).

TABLE 5.7
Part-Time Work and Personal/Social Development
(number of interviewees)

	EFFECT			
	None	Little	Some	A Lot
Aspect:				
Feeling of independence	1	9	10	9
Feeling of responsibility	2	8	11	8
Change in attitude - manners	5	5	9	10
Change in attitude - language	10	3	8	9
Change in level of personal confidence	-	8	13	7
Development in own abilities	3	9	12	5
Greater knowledge of the world of work	2	8	11	8

The majority of respondents felt that their part-time job had at least "some" effect on their personal development in terms of each aspect (although, this was less so for part-time work changing young people's attitudes towards the language they use). These aspects are relevant to the notion of "quality of life", noted in the previous section. It may be added that the respondents believed that their own abilities had changed (presumably increased) and that they now had some greater knowledge of the world of work as a result of their part-time job. Obviously, involvement in work increases one's knowledge of work.

When considering these interview responses in conjunction with earlier discussion, it would seem that most interviewees believed that they had developed in terms of some of the psychological/social aspects associated with the world of work. It appears that personal and social development (i.e. "quality of life") represents a significant outcome, if not an incentive, of

part-time work. Several features of this development are illustrated by the comments below:

Independence (26 respondents)

'By having a job it makes me feel kind of established. I'm not a child anymore. I don't have to rely on mum and dad for everything and it makes me feel more of an adult I suppose. I'm capable of looking after myself.'

Responsibility (20 respondents)

'You have a greater sense of responsibility to yourself getting to work, and to (your) employer doing the best you can, and to (your) family - contributing to the household (economy).'

Interpersonal Skills (15 respondents)

'I like (the job) because I meet a lot of people and it has really helped my confidence in talking to other people. You have to be pleasant to everyone who comes in ... and I've seen lots of different people. It's really opened my eyes to all the different types of people there are.'

Given the balance of opinions of young people, as expressed above, it would seem that such consequences as greater independence and an increased sense of responsibility, which are often neglected by social policy makers, appear to be outcomes of youth engagement in part-time work. These characteristics which are components of a significant milestone (i.e. involvement in work) in youth's transition to adulthood, might be given higher profile in future planning of educational/employment options; young people do view work as an important goal in their development. As one respondent said:

'I think it's good. I think my brother should get a part-time job because it gives you more confidence when looking for full-time work to know that you can ... relate to people and everything. Even if it doesn't directly relate to full-time work it's good because at least you can say you've had some experience ... if you've got experience you can get a reference to say you've handled people and things like that. I think everyone should have one.'

The sentiments expressed above, when considered in conjunction with the discussion of the previous section and the findings of Steinberg *et al.* (1982), suggest that the benefits of part-time work to young people should be addressed at least as much in terms of its value to the social and psychological development of young people, as it is in terms of training and skill acquisition.

Several claims about the disadvantages and advantages of part-time work have been stated in this chapter. The balance between these will be undoubtedly altered, depending upon different points of view about youth in society and the role of social institutions in youth's transition to adulthood. However, the final comment offered below reminds us that present part-time work is seen as a separate part of life by young people. In response to the question, 'If you were offered a full-time position in the same job as your part-time work, would you accept it?' one young person replied:

'No way. McDonalds is just a phase in life.'

5.5 Students talk to students about part-time work

As described in Chapter 3, a second group of young people was interviewed about their part-time work. These interviews, with 48 students who were working part-time in November 1983, were conducted by a student research team and provide information about part-time work among secondary school students who were younger than those in the longitudinal study interview sample. The major findings from this second set of interviews are only briefly discussed because, in general, they did not differ markedly from those presented in the previous sections of this chapter. Several limitations of the interview data should be acknowledged. This interview sample was not randomly selected as data relating to the background characteristics considered in this study (apart from gender, age, year level and school attended) were not available. Further, no interviews were conducted with younger youth (e.g. 14-16 year olds) who worked part-time and were not attending school. Nevertheless, these interview data provide an initial examination of important facets of the part-time work phenomenon among a group of younger students.

Table 3.3 presented data which described the 48 students drawn from 7 schools (6 of which were located in the Melbourne metropolitan area). Of relevance, was that at the time of interview, 67 percent of the sample were attending Year 9 or 10 and 82 percent were under the age of 17 (13% were 14, 40% were 15 and 29% were 16 years of age).

Not surprisingly, given the industry data reported in this study, these young people were predominantly employed as sales/shop assistants, cashiers or in other positions associated with the retail and food/drink industries (e.g.

waitress, kitchen hand). Also, some of these younger students (10%) reported newspaper delivery or babysitting as their part-time work. To what extent others did not report such work, particularly babysitting, as their part-time job is not known. Perhaps young people in the longitudinal study interview sample, as well as from this sample, did not regard these tasks as "official" forms of part-time work and so did not acknowledge this area of work in the interviews.

The majority of these students (60%) worked 8 hours or less per week (slightly less time than reported for the panel interviewees) and a small group (13%) worked 16 hours or more per week. Also, some students commented that their weekly part-time work hours varied considerably from one week to the next. Such fluctuation in weekly working hours was due to them being employed on a casual basis, rather than on a permanent part-time basis. Casual part-time employment, however, may not be attractive to those who prefer a more routine schedule in their working life. A student who did not like working casual part-time, but preferred full-time work because of the stability of working hours, commented:

'... because when you're working part-time you don't know when you've got to come in ... so I'd rather work full-time when you know you've got to come in'.

As was observed for the panel interviewees a range of reasons was offered about why these students worked part-time. Earning money was mentioned by 81 percent of the sample, although very few commented that money was needed to directly assist the family income. A large number of students also believed that their part-time job provided them with an opportunity to be more independent (63%), exercise some responsibility (69%), meet people and improve their interpersonal skills (63%), and gain some work experience (42%). Work-related traits such as punctuality and responsibility were considered by the students to be important lessons learned through work. From comments made by some students, there appears to be no substitute for preparation for work than experiences in the work place itself:

'...that's been a big lesson. There's been a bit of strife at work lately and I got pulled up for that. I'm learning now that I can't do what the seniors can do. There's a certain pecking order and you have to respect that.'

It was observed earlier in this chapter that part-time work, in the view of young people, contributes to their social and personal development. Whether similar developments would be commented upon by students who were not working remains a matter of conjecture. Consequently, it is not possible to conclude whether the experience of part-time work further contributes to the maturational development of young people than normally occurs.

Despite the reported gains in work experience, relatively few students (15%) believed that their part-time jobs were leading onto related full-time employment. Part-time positions such as hairdressing assistant, sales assistant and automotive repairer were considered by a few students to be entry level jobs for future occupations in these industries. It is relevant to note that this proportion is about one-half that found for the panel interview group and is roughly of the same order of magnitude as for those panel interviewees still attending school (see p.94).

The majority of students reported that they were "keen about their studies" (62%) and were "good at their school work" (70%). In addition, almost one-fifth (21%) of the group thought that part-time work affected their performance in school. (This compares with a figure of 25 percent for the panel interviewee sample.) Most of these students reported that their part-time job reduced their study time or caused them to be "too tired to study".

Although most students reported no connection between present part-time job and future occupation, one-third reported that they would leave school tomorrow if a full-time job was available. These respondents did not differ from others in terms of their responses to the schoolwork questions (60% "keen about studies", 80% "good at schoolwork"); a finding which perhaps suggests that, for many young people, the uncertainty of the future youth labour market may encourage them to discontinue their education as soon as there is an opportunity to enter employment.

In summary, the findings from the interviews conducted by the student research team confirm those presented in sections 5.2 and 5.4. The part-time jobs held by this group of young people appear to have little significance for the students' future occupational plans. Full-time work remains the goal for the vast majority of these young people (94%). Whether their expectations can be met

will depend, for the most part, on future economic and labour market policies. As noted in Chapter 2, there has been a sizeable growth in the proportion of the labour market "locked into" part-time work. Also, and of importance to issues concerning the linkages between the experience of part-time work for young people and their educational/occupational career development, there was a noticeable lack of congruence between the part-time jobs presently held by the group and the occupational categories in which students plan to enter employment in the future. It would seem that present part-time working experiences are not seen by students to be of significance for their occupational futures (81% reported that their part-time jobs were not related to their future occupational plans).

Nonetheless, part-time work has been shown to have an immediate significance in the lives of youth. In addition to money, personal satisfaction and a sense of contribution to their personal development appear to be important major outcomes of part-time work. Nearly all the young people who were interviewed, from both sets of interviews, reported that part-time work had provided them with greater feelings of independence and responsibility. These outcomes, significant in that they were reported by the young people themselves, should not be overlooked in trying to understand the value of work for young people and should be included in any proposals which are developed to further a youth guarantee to work and/or schooling.

CHAPTER 6

TOWARD RETHINKING PART-TIME WORK

It has been widely observed that during the unfavourable economic conditions of the 1970s, there was a strong growth in the incidence of paid part-time work by young people. The increased use of part-time labour has been associated with rapid technological growth and has contributed to a reduction in full-time employment opportunities for young people (e.g. DEYA, 1983).

Several alternative explanations for the increase in youth part-time work have been offered. One possibility is that young people worked on a part-time basis because they were unable to obtain full-time work. Another possibility is that new types of jobs were created during the 1970s which were especially suitable for students to undertake employment after school hours. A further possibility which has been advanced is that unemployment benefits have been available to young people seeking full-time work on the basis of a stringent income test, perhaps resulting in school attending teenagers taking the part-time jobs rather than the unemployed full-time job seekers (see Stricker and Sheehan, 1981).

While this study provides information relevant to such explanations it has not attempted to identify the relative importance of each. Rather than focus on changes in the structure of the youth labour market, this study has attempted to address the value of part-time work for young people in terms of its significance to their social, educational and occupational career development.

For many young people, entry into the part-time labour force occurs at some point between the years of compulsory schooling and later participation in full-time employment. As Anderson (1983a) and others have pointed out, young people undergo different kinds of transition in their movement from youth to adulthood. Transition from school to work, transition from dependence to independence (both in an economic and personal identity sense) and transition from youth to adult status (including political and social transitions) have become some of the important features of "growing up" in our society. However, there appears to have been some disruption or disorientation to their flow which, at least in part, is due to more recent economic changes which have

threatened employment opportunities for all. The smooth transition from school to work in particular, can no longer be assumed. In an attempt to overcome the problems of transition there have been calls for an expansion of educational, training and employment opportunities for youth (e.g. Karmel, 1979). While such calls have intended desirable outcomes, it is argued here that a contemporary perspective of transition needs to recognise the youth part-time work phenomenon.

Through an examination of youth part-time work by a transition approach to research (see Chapter 1), this study has attempted to reinforce the view that the determination of youth policies be based on a comprehensive and holistic perspective of the status and role of youth in contemporary society.

6.1 Major findings and their implications

Although part-time work needs to be recognised as a formal transition experience it is not a homogeneous experience for youth. For example, individual characteristics, reasons for undertaking part-time work and the kinds of part-time jobs available differ among young people. Consequently, the significance of the contribution of part-time work to youth in transition will vary both in nature and degree. The findings from this research, therefore, should be recognised as representing trends concerning paid part-time work, not as constituting precise evidence about particular groups of young people or unpaid part-time labour.

In Chapter 1, six major research questions were identified. The findings with respect to these questions have been comprehensively discussed in Chapters 4 and 5. This section, rather than reiterate these findings, provides an overview of the salient features of this study and discusses some of the major implications.

What is the nature of part-time work undertaken by youth? As identified in Chapter 4, the vast majority of young part-time workers, particularly those attending school, worked in the retail (including food/drink) industry; positions which are generally of a kind which offer little or no long-term career prospects. (1) In addition, from the data reported in Chapters 4 and 5, it appears that most part-time jobs do not offer any technical skills which may

1. A career may be defined structurally as a succession of jobs arranged in a hierarchial fashion reflecting changes in status (or prestige). People move through these job levels in an ordered sequence.

be related to educational development or the occupational aspirations of young people. These findings suggest that present youth part-time work is primarily restricted to the secondary labour market, an observation consistent with that of Sweet (1980a):

'In essence an increasing proportion of the teenage labour force can be found in jobs with a minimal skill component and in jobs which are not generally associated with further education or training. Unlike full-time jobs, these new part-time jobs cannot be seen as the bottom rung of a promotional ladder. In some industries the nature of career paths is being restructured, and avenues for promotion from the bottom on the basis of experience are being shut off. If teenagers are not seen as an investment in an industry's future, the necessary human capital must be recruited elsewhere.'

(Sweet, 1980a : 41)

While most of the young people in the panel were in jobs concentrated in retail industries, the occupational and industry data reported in Chapters 4 and 5 also identified a small number of young people who were employed in positions in other industries. It was also noted that some forms of part-time work, such as babysitting or newspaper delivery, may be under-reported (particularly babysitting) because young people do not consider these as constituting forms of employment in the "official" part-time labour force.

The March 1983 questionnaire data revealed that the average weekly take-home pay for part-time workers attending educational institutions was \$31, while that of part-time workers not in education was \$90. At this time, the junior unemployment benefit for young people under 18 years of age was \$40 per week. Most of the young people in the panel were attending education on a full-time basis. Given the long-term career aspirations held by most of these youth, it was unlikely that the level of unemployment benefit (similar to their part-time work earnings) would act as a disincentive to continue educational participation (see Chapter 4). However, for those part-time workers not attending school the disparity between wages and the unemployment benefit suggests a monetary incentive to engage in part-time work. These findings are relevant to the consideration of the relationships between financial incentives and labour force participation, although such relationships are presently unclear and, therefore, need to be treated with caution (see DEYA, 1983).

For 83 percent of the student part-time workers their part-time jobs did not require more than 9 hours per week. This time requirement, although relatively small, must be recognised as an additional time commitment for young people

attending full-time post-compulsory education. Of those interviewed, approximately only one quarter indicated that their part-time job had affected their performance at school.

What are the characteristics of youth in the part-time labour force? From the data reported in Chapter 4, several observations may be drawn concerning the characteristics of youth part-time workers. While it is recognised that these characteristics are related, their separate treatment is, nonetheless, informative.

Most of the panel who were working part-time also attended secondary school. Relatively more of the young women in the panel hold part-time jobs. Australian-born teenagers whose parents were also born in Australia tended to participate more in part-time work than youth born in non-English speaking countries or youth whose parents were born in such countries.

It was notable that young people from a "high" socioeconomic (SES) family background were more likely to be engaged in part-time employment than young people from a "low" SES background. According to this study, one explanation for this pattern is that part-time work is predominantly an activity engaged in by young people attending school, whereas young people from a "low" SES background tend to be those who leave school early and enter full-time employment or enter the labour market and are not employed.

Those members of the panel who remained in school up to and including their twelfth year of formal education were identified in Chapter 4 as young people who may be described as "connected"; their educational and occupational careers were marked by high aspirations as Year 9 students in addition to completing secondary school. Together with high parental expectations concerning education and high SES background, these features of "connectedness" appear to be antecedents of continued participation in education and of involvement in both part-time employment and full-time education.

A consideration of the interrelationships of the individual, family, school and social psychological characteristics provided through these analyses suggests that students who work part-time are more "connected" than students who do not. From the discriminant function analyses reported in Chapter 4, it

appears that student part-time workers, compared with students who do not hold part-time jobs, tend to have the background characteristics of higher SES and higher occupational aspirations. Further, the discriminant function analysis suggested that part-time workers not in education and others, who were not working and not involved in education, were similarly "disconnected".

Past economic research has shown that students are the predominant group in the part-time labour force (e.g. Sweet, 1980a, 1980b) and many educational studies have described the relative "connectedness" of young people who remain in education in the post-compulsory years, in similar terms to those used in this research (e.g. Boudon, 1974; Connell *et al.*, 1975). The findings of this study inform both research areas and also demonstrate the necessity for linking these areas: the majority of youth part-time workers are school-attending teenagers and these young people tend to be the relatively more "connected" in society.

Discussion in Chapter 4 identified that the relationships between the various background characteristics, apart from SES, and the educational/employment activities of the young men and women of the panel, were generally similar. However, as a group, the young women were more likely than the young men to be engaged in education alone or education and part-time employment across the levels within each background characteristic. While this finding may, on the surface, suggest that young women are more "connected" in an educational sense than young men, a broader interpretation is required. Labour market data indicate that proportionally fewer women compared to men, enter higher status occupations (see DEYA, 1983). Consequently, it is important to recognise young men and young women as two distinct groups with respect to the pathways of transition; "connectedness" needs to encompass both the origins and destinations of young people's transition from school to work.

Why do young people engage in part-time work? As identified in the literature reported in Chapter 2 and from the data reported in this study, it would appear that part-time work is particularly suited to young people attending school. The conditions of part-time work (e.g. hours, wages, longer-term employment prospects) may not be attractive incentives for those who have left school. From the interview data reported in Chapter 5, it seems that youth enter the part-time labour force in order to gain a measure of economic independence

rather than to directly assist their education or improve their career prospects as full-time workers. It was observed, however, that part-time work did have the advantages of giving young people a sense of identity and responsibility, and facilitated their social development; aspects of the maturational development of young people which perhaps are under-emphasised in education but which, it is commonly asserted, are relevant in the workplace.

Does part-time work facilitate occupational career development? As indicated throughout this report, present part-time jobs undertaken by young people do not appear to have structural links to their occupational career development as adults. This is especially so when one observes from the data of Chapters 4 and 5, that young part-time workers appear predominantly to be drawn from the group who complete secondary education and through their educational success are more likely to aspire to and attain high status and primary labour market occupations. These data suggest that present part-time work does not provide a "bridging experience" into higher status occupations, or indeed full-time occupations for those young people who in their early school years had a low perception of their school success (and as such may be characterised as those least likely to continue their participation in education). Nevertheless, the interview data indicated that many young people regard their part-time jobs as enabling them to develop attributes (e.g. responsibility, industriousness, inter-personal skills) as well as providing them with some experience of work which would assist them in ways, other than a structural connection, to engage in a full-time job.

Does part-time work fulfill a useful social and personal development function? Despite the lack of structural linkages, these findings lend support to those from the Department of Employment and Youth Affairs which suggest that many young people who were engaged in lowly ranking occupations derived significant satisfaction from them (DEYA, 1983). Work is seen as a central focus in the lives of youth, not just for the economic return it provides but also because work may be regarded as indicative of adult status and provides participants with intrinsic satisfaction (e.g. Connell *et al.*, 1975; Sturman, 1979; Williams Report, 1979). The findings reported in Chapter 5 indicate that young part-time workers derive a measure of personal satisfaction and development from their engagement in part-time work - important objectives for any youth policy. Such objectives, valuable though they may be, do not replace the economic necessity to work that exists for some young people.

What is the role of part-time work in the transition from school to work? This final question permits the implications of the major findings of this research to be cogently summarised. While part-time work is fundamentally a matter of economic and employment policies, education policies need to also focus on the issues of work and how formal schooling can facilitate entry into work (e.g. Polk, 1983). The data reported in this study provide little evidence to suggest that part-time work for young people plays a significant role in school to work transition. For many young people, involvement in part-time employment appears to be almost an aside, in terms of their educational and occupational career development. For so-called "connected" youth, the effects of part-time work on their transition from school to work appear relatively benign.

As various studies have commented, successful transition from youth to adulthood is dependent upon a complex set of factors (see Anderson and Blakers, 1983). The evidence of this study has identified several contributions of part-time work in this regard. However, without qualitative data from a comparable group of students who do not participate in part-time work it is not possible to state the extent of the contribution of part-time working experiences to the maturational development (including educational development) of young people. If gains through part-time work such as increased independence, responsibility and interpersonal skills are established as significant and important outcomes, they should be recognised in education and employment related policies.

All young people should have access to opportunities that facilitate their transition, rather than some young people, the generally more "connected", who may "pick them up" as a result of their engagement in ancillary activities such as part-time work.

6.2 Future research concerning part-time work

A study of this kind, in attempting to address a set of reasonably broad research questions, frequently brings to the surface further questions requiring investigation. Accordingly, it is suggested that further research is desirable in order to address a range of substantive questions which have implications for contemporary youth policies. Although in no sense exhaustive, it is put forward that future research energies might be directed towards such matters as:

- . the relationship between part-time work and long-term occupational career attainment

The present study, given the average age of the panel (17-18 years old) at the last wave of data collection, has been primarily restricted to consideration of occupational career aspirations. While aspirations are linked to attainment, the relationship is far from clear. Longitudinal investigations which have access to occupational (and further educational) attainment data are needed in order to describe the interactive character of school, work and subsequent educational and occupational attainment. In this regard, the effect of youth part-time work, together with various school and demographic variables, on long-term occupational career attainment could be examined.

- the differences among part-time jobs and their differential impact on young people

Working in different types of environments and in different types of jobs is likely to have different developmental consequences or impacts on youth. The effects of part-time work may be mediated by the nature of the job (or job environment) and by the individual characteristics of young part-time workers. Although this study provides some information in this regard, future research could address differences among jobs, differences among young workers, variations in such things as hours worked and the interactions among these factors. Further research about part-time work and subgroups of youth may provide a more comprehensive picture of youth transition.

To what extent young people enter certain part-time jobs because they are attractive or because they are readily available requires examination.

- the reinforcement of labour market segmentation by youth part-time work

It has been observed that divisions may be distinguished within the labour market which may be characterised by different groups of workers (e.g. males/females, those with "high"/"poor" educational credentials) operating in different labour markets, with different working conditions, different promotional opportunities and different wages. Reich *et al.*, (1973) have used the terminology of dual labour market theory in discussing the primary and secondary segments of the labour market. They offer the following illustrative definition:

'The primary and secondary segments, to use the terminology of dual labor market theory, are differentiated mainly by stability characteristics. Primary jobs require and develop stable working habits; skills are often acquired on the job; wages are relatively high; and job ladders exist. Secondary jobs do not require and often discourage stable working habits; wages are low; turnover is high; and job ladders are few. Secondary jobs are mainly (though not exclusively) filled by minority workers, women, and youth.'

(Reich et al., 1973 : 359-360)

As this study has recognised, youth part-time work is mainly located in the secondary labour market, a vertical form of labour market segmentation. Where further research may be valuable is the critical examination of the effect of the growing youth part-time work phenomenon on horizontal labour market segmentation, in both the primary and secondary labour markets. Such research could investigate whether young people who undertake part-time work for occupational career purposes become increasingly "locked" into positions that restrict upward and lateral movement.

6.3 The future and challenge for transition policies

This study has not examined contemporary policies designed to address the problems of transition. Nonetheless, it is recognised that there is a need to articulate youth policies and programs across education and employment systems, in preference to initiatives which locate and concentrate policy and program developments in only one side of the school to work equation. That is to say, educating for employment does not guarantee jobs. Conversely, a full-employment economy does not in itself provide for a well educated society nor facilitate the transition from youth to adulthood.

Given that leisure is not an attractive option for those unable to find work and that social costs are likely to rise with increasing youth unemployment, options to increase youth employment must be sought. Current responses to youth unemployment vary, partly because there is no consensus about the causes of the problem. Reubens (1980), in reviewing youth unemployment programs adopted by 17 OECD countries in 1975-1978, concludes that there is a dramatic absence of new approaches in these countries. Education, training and employment-based programs show conspicuous similarity among countries.

Australian programs designed to cope with youth unemployment are generally based on similar rationales. Public sector initiatives that target on an educational

solution to the problem range from improving the skills and habits of young people for entry into the world of work to increasing school retention rates. (2)

Educational strategies, primarily based on supply solutions for unemployment (e.g. vocational guidance, career counselling), are unlikely to be effective unless they address the central problem - the lack of jobs for young people - at the same time. Anderson (1983b) argues that such strategies will be more effective if they are targetted on the work side of the school to work equation.

Increasing retention rates in full-time education hides the problem of the lack of available work destinations for young people in transition. Further, isolated calls to increase retention rates are spurious strategies for improving the employability of young people. Such policies need to pay due regard to the relationships between the availability of employment and school retention rates. Unfavourable economic conditions which have reduced the availability of full-time jobs for youth may have led to the tendency for some young people to remain in education for longer periods. For instance, Stricker and Sheehan (1981) estimated that during 1979 10 to 12 percent of 15-16 year olds were attending school only because of the unavailability of (full-time) jobs. They refer to this notion as 'recession-induced school attendance'. In this regard, it might be argued that increased school retention is not due to the attractiveness of school per se but rather to the unavailability of full-time employment options. In other words, the deterioration in economic conditions and concomitant changes in the structure of the youth labour market have created a disincentive for some young people to leave school. For others, however, these conditions appear to have encouraged them to leave school as soon as full-time work is available (CTEC, 1982).

Another aspect of public sector initiatives targets employment, rather than education, to alleviate youth unemployment. Job creation programs have been designed to recruit the young unemployed for short terms. Many of these programs assume recessionary or cyclical causes of youth unemployment. Relatively few initiatives appear to be based on a longer-term, structural view of problems in the youth labour market, particularly for the most socially

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2. Schools Commission, Transition Education Advisory Committee (TEAC) and Technical and Further Education (TAFE) grants have been used to ease the transition from school to work.

disadvantaged (e.g. low income, minority youth). One reason for the shortage of these kinds of job creation programs is the lack of consensus about supply and demand factors in causing youth unemployment.

From the demand point of view, economic forces have led to a sustained shortage of jobs for young people. Consequently, policies about long-term job creation are seen as essential (Polk, 1983). At the same time, supply factors need to be incorporated in these policies, i.e. such policies should enhance the employability of young people (e.g. work experience, training), provide explicit steps for career development, encourage the private sector to play a greater role in providing work opportunities and strengthen the linkage between the education and employment systems (Anderson, 1983b; Anderson and Sawhill, 1980; Polk, 1983).

An approach which may be argued to embrace both education and employment components in solutions of youth unemployment and low school retention rates, is that of a "youth guarantee" (e.g. OECD, 1977). However, if Australia is to become more effective in its quest to alleviate youth unemployment, policies which improve both immediate and long-term employment prospects will be required.

This research raises two fundamental reservations about present part-time work, if considered to be part of a coherent youth policy strategy. First, part-time work engaged in by young people appears to offer little return for occupational career development, although some work "habits" appear to be learned on the job. Second, "disconnected" young people (perhaps indicative of their general social disadvantage) are less likely to be found in part-time work, compared with their peers who attend school and may be characterised as likely to enter tertiary education and higher status jobs in the primary labour market (i.e. those jobs which offer high wages, high stability and are career linked).

The need for a coherent youth policy which provides necessary opportunities at the right time for all young people is clear.

'As you know, there has been no coherent policy in education and training in the recent past. There has been no coherent policy for youth. We have been badly served by conservatism and ad hocism. The existing short-term job preparation and work experience schemes do too little to improve the employability and job skills of youth. Such schemes offer too little, too late - after young people have already been alienated from the education system, have left it and are unemployed. There is little purpose in expending money on one government program to undo the damage done by another.'

(Ryan, 1983)

The provision of opportunities and improvement of employability are necessary but not sufficient features of a youth guarantee. A youth guarantee needs to ensure a range of other features such as, the longer-term creation of new forms of work which fulfil a social need (as opposed to "make-work" initiatives), the provision of opportunities for career development, a combination of school and work which provides educational knowledge and skills, the social and psychological development of young people and the recruitment of young people who have little educational success (e.g. Pearl *et. al.*, 1978; Polk, 1983).

A "new careers" approach to job creation, particularly in growth areas of the economy, provides both employment and training on a part-time work, part-time education basis. Further, Polk (1983) proposes that the tertiary sector of the economy is particularly suited for new careers programs and that occupational career lines, coupled with progressive educational stages, can be designed to enhance the educational, skill, work and personal development of young people. If developed in this sector (e.g. human services) these strategies could broaden the access of young people to rewarding career opportunities.

'The new careers approach can also be viewed as an extension and adaption of the well established idea of apprenticeship. Like apprenticeship it calls for an extensive period of work coupled with education. Like apprenticeship, it builds the career through progressive learning of the needed work skills on the job from certified practitioners. It shares, further, the need for effective collaboration between employers and educators in planning and program implementation. New careers extends the basic notions of apprenticeship by: providing more explicit steps between the first and last roles in the career development ladder or process; and returning the notion of apprenticeship to the human service professions (which until only a few decades ago relied on forms of apprenticeship for training of young career candidates).'

(Polk, 1983: 8)

"New careers" strategies have clear goals of educational development and training, while providing employment for young people. In addition, they are grounded in a recognition of the need to provide opportunities for all young people to develop their personal and social skills. Future part-time work, therefore, may be structured along lines in ways that facilitate long-term career development, as well as ways that enhance the social psychological development of young people. Part-time work can be an option for both "connected" and "disconnected" youth - to do so requires a rethinking of the linkages between economics, education, training and employment based policies and programs.

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APPENDIX 1

SAMPLING AND ATTRITION

This appendix addresses some of the technical issues associated with the sampling frame employed in the VISE longitudinal study. It provides a description of the sampling frame, a discussion of the efficiency with which it estimates state averages, the weighting procedure employed to compensate for over sampling of minor strata and a discussion of the extent and possible effects of attrition over the three waves of data collection.

The Sampling Frame

The intention of the VISE longitudinal study was to follow a group of Year 9 students in Victorian secondary schools through their transition from school to work or other post-school activities. As such, the selected sample needed to be representative of the Year 9 Victorian secondary school population. For this purpose a single-stage proportionate sampling strategy was employed with the strata structured around the major systemic characteristics of schools. The three variables selected as the basis for stratification were geographical region, school system and the co-educational or single-sex status of the student population of the school. Using these variables, the identification of 36 strata were possible.

The actual representation of each stratum in the population (see Table 1) was determined from estimates of the number of secondary students in each school in the strata, excluding special schools and those in which no Year 9 students were enrolled. These were based on the 1979 enrollment figures for Catholic schools and the 1978 enrollment figures for government and independent schools.

After classifying all schools eligible for entry into the sample according to the strata, 11 strata contained no schools, resulting in 25 non-empty strata. Of these, 9 were eliminated from the sampling frame because they contained fewer than 1 percent of Victorian secondary schools or fewer than 1 percent of Victorian secondary students. In 3 instances, country and provincial strata were combined to form 3 pseudo-strata that would be represented in the sample. Thus the final number of strata in the sampling frame was 13. The percentage of secondary students in each stratum is presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1
Victorian Secondary School Students in Population Strata
(percentage)

	SINGLE-SEX			CO-EDUCATIONAL		
	Metro-politan	Prov- incial	Country	Metro-politan	Prov- incial	Country
School System:						
Government High	3	-	-	34	6	13
Government Technical	5		3*	7		5*
Catholic	11	2	-	-	-	2
Independent	7	-	-	-		2*

* Percentage in pseudo-stratum.

On the basis of an average school enrollment, the number of schools necessary to attain the appropriate sample stratum proportions were randomly selected from each stratum. In the cases where more than one school was selected, schools were ordered according to size and then systematically selected to ensure that a range of school sizes were obtained within the strata.

This strategy resulted in 26 schools being selected for the initial 1980 survey. In all, 2378 Year 9 students were surveyed. However, during machine processing, 76 student questionnaires were destroyed and another 2 students provided no identification and could not be allocated to a stratum. The distribution of the remaining 2300 students among the strata and their associated sample proportions are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2
Students in the Sample Strata
(percentage in parentheses)

	SINGLE-SEX			CO-EDUCATIONAL		
	Metro-politan	Prov- incial	Country	Metro-politan	Prov- incial	Country
School System:						
Government High	57 (2)	- -	- -	580 (25)	188 (8)	166 (7)
Government Technical	171 (7)		150 (7)	173 (8)		62 (3)
Catholic	369 (16)	106 (5)	- -	- -	- -	53 (2)
Independent	183 (8)	-	-	-		42 (2)

Weighting

A comparison of Tables 1 and 2 reveals certain biases in this sample. These differences in the strata sizes are a result of cluster sampling arising from the variability of school enrollments. It was therefore necessary to apply weights to the sample strata so that the proportion of students reflected the actual proportion of Year 9 students in the Victorian population.

The strata weights (W) were computed according to the formula

$$W = \frac{N}{n}$$

where

N = population for stratum s

N = total population (N = N)

n = sample size for stratum s

n = total sample size (n = n)

The weights were obtained by dividing the population proportions provided in Table 1 by the corresponding sample proportions provided in Table 2. The strata weights obtained by this process are given in Table 3.

TABLE 3
Strata Weights for the 1980 survey

	SINGLE-SEX			CO-EDUCATIONAL		
	Metro-politan	Provincial	Country	Metro-politan	Provincial	Country
<u>School System:</u>						
Government High	1.07	-	-	1.34	.77	1.84
Government Technical	.67		.53	.92		1.69
Catholic	.70	.50	-	-	-	.72
Independent	.92	-	-	-		.89

Attrition

Characteristically, longitudinal studies are faced with the problem of attrition. All of the variables concerned with the work status of students were obtained from the third wave longitudinal survey carried out in 1983. Respondent loss over this period is therefore of importance in this study as the effective sample size for all analyses involving work-related variables was limited to the number of third wave respondents (N = 1914). It may be noted that 59 of the students whose wave 1 survey questionnaires were destroyed, responded to the wave 3 survey questionnaire.

Return and attrition rates for each wave of data collection are presented in Table 4. These data indicate that the rate of respondent loss was reduced between waves 2 and 3, compared with the rate between waves 1 and 2.

TABLE 4
Attrition in the Longitudinal Study: Waves 1 - 3

	No. of Questionnaires Distributed	Percent Returned	Original Panel Percent Loss
Time of Data Collection:			
1980	2378	97	3
1981	2378	87	13
1983	2316	83	20*

* 8 percent of this loss appears due to lack of address information.

It is possible that respondent loss may be correlated with the variables under study which could bias the relevant statistics. It is not possible to test this hypothesis directly. However, the extent to which the attrition was evenly distributed across the strata and its effect on some key variables from the first survey may be observed. Table 5 presents the percentage of panel members from each strata remaining in the sample for the third wave of the survey in 1983.

TABLE 5
Initial Panel Remaining in 1983 Survey
(percentage)

	SINGLE-SEX			CO-EDUCATIONAL		
	Metro- politan	Prov- incial	Country	Metro- politan	Prov- incial	Country
School System:						
Government High	79	-	-	77	82	88
Government Technical	70		69	69		76
Catholic	86	86	-	-	-	91
Independent	87	-	-	-		81
Chi-square = 65.64, p < .00						

Although significant differences exist between the proportions of each strata remaining in the panel at wave 3, no adjustment was made to correct for this attrition. The losses tend to reflect the differential movement of students out of education and although univariate estimates of overall proportions of full-time, part-time and non-working persons may be biased as a result of attrition, the proportions within school should still reflect those of the general Year 12 population.

Table 6 provides some indication of the extent and direction of this bias by presenting the respondent loss for some key characteristics of the panel; the sex of respondents (SEX), the status of their father's job (FBJZ), the job status to which they aspire (BJZA), and whether or not they were born in Australia, an English speaking nation or non-English speaking nation (ETHNICITY). (1)

TABLE 6
Respondent Loss for some Key Characteristics

	N	Percent retained	Percent Loss	Chi square	p
Key characteristic:					
SEX Male	1173	77	23	14.7	<.00
Female	1127	83	17		
FBJZ un/semi-skilled	752	79	21	12.5	<.00
skilled/white collar	721	78	22		
managerial/professional	663	85	15	35.0	<.00
BJZA un/semi-skilled	325	75	25		
skilled/white collar	661	74	26		
managerial/professional	986	85	15	1.2	N.S.
ETHNICITY Australian	2062	80	20		
English born	109	81	19		
non English born	126	76	24		

1. It should be noted that this classification of ethnicity differs from that reported in Chapter 4 in that it is based only on student's country of birth rather than student's and parents' country of birth.

The demographic data in Tables 5 and 6 indicate that there is a tendency for losses to be somewhat biased in the direction of such factors as males, government and particularly technical schools, lower socioeconomic background and lower occupational aspirations. Thus, some bias exists along dimensions of social vulnerability, i.e. losses are more likely to occur for those with some form of social or institutional disadvantage.

Considering the biases inherent in the data, caution should be exercised in interpreting any univariate statistics reported in this study. However, attrition does not appear to significantly affect relationships among main dependent and independent variables, a finding consistent with Polk *et al.* (1981), and Sewell and Hauser (1977). Consequently the bivariate and multivariate statistics reported in this study can be considered as unbiased estimates of the strength of these relationships. This is demonstrated in Table 7 which presents inter-correlations for some key wave 1 variables for both the original and wave 3 samples.

TABLE 7

Inter-Correlation Matrix of some Key Variables: Original (i.e. Wave 1) and Retained (i.e. Wave 3) Samples

	FBJZ	BJZA	ETHNICITY	ACHIEVEMENT
FBJZ		0.152a 0.164b	-0.034 -0.028	0.070 0.072
BJZA	0.012c		0.025 0.010	0.239 0.237
ETHNICITY	0.006	0.015		0.040 0.011
ACHIEVEMENT	0.002	0.002	0.029	

a. Correlation coefficient based on original sample

b. Correlation coefficient based on retained sample

c. Absolute difference between correlation coefficients.

On the basis of these analyses it would appear that while sample bias may present a problem for univariate estimates it does not constitute a problem for multivariate relationships. Although slight differences between the two samples exist they do not seriously distort the picture and, therefore, generalisations may be drawn with reasonable confidence.

APPENDIX 2

CREATION OF INDICES

Two main indices were created for use in the analyses described in this report - socioeconomic status and attitudes towards the importance and value of education. This appendix reports on the analyses involved in their creation.

There are two major reasons for using indexes such as these. If a dimension can be assumed to underly a number of variables then a combination of them will usually result in a measure with higher reliability than any single indicator by itself. An index formed in this way will also have several desirable properties. They tend to exhibit the properties of an interval scale, and, according to the Central Limit Theorem, will be more normally distributed. These characteristics are of crucial importance in the use of some of the more powerful statistical techniques. The use of these techniques would not be appropriate if strict statistical criteria were applied to some of the individual variables from which the indices are constructed.

Attitudes about the Importance of School

This index was created by the addition of six items from a version of the Attitude Toward School Inventory (ATSI) developed by Meier and McDaniel (1974) and adapted for use in the VISE Longitudinal Study. Although only one attitudinal index was created for the Part-time Work Study the instrument was chosen because it measured several aspects of attitudes toward school, comprising schoolwork, teachers, and school in general. The authors also reported impressive validity and reliability data, validity having been assessed by a multitrait-multimethod matrix of self, peer and teacher ratings, and reliability having been assessed by item-total and item subscale correlations, coefficient alpha and the test-retest method.

A modified instrument of 27 items, 11 on schoolwork, 8 about teachers and 8 concerning school in general, was trialed in 1979 (Schrom, 1980). The validity was again checked using a multitrait-dualmethod validity matrix (Campbell and Fiske, 1959) of the inventory versus self-ratings and the internal reliability for the scales was calculated.

The Scree Test (Cattell, 1956) for the number of underlying factors contained in the inventory, equivocally indicated a 1, 2 or 3 factor solution. Principal component analyses for 1, 2 and 3 factors were carried out, and as it was assumed that the factors underlying attitudes toward school would be correlated the factors were obliquely rotated.

All items loaded modestly on the single factor indicating that a general attitude toward school was a plausible solution. The two factor solution clearly indicated a combined attitude toward schoolwork and school in general factor and an attitude toward teachers factor which were correlated .50. The three factor solution was uninterpretable.

On the basis of these analyses a 23 item inventory was used in the longitudinal study. Again a factor analysis of the responses to the wave 1 survey indicated two main factors were involved; an attitude toward teachers and a combined schoolwork and school in general scale. A principal axes factor analysis with iterations and squared multiple correlations as initial communality estimates was used to extract two factors which were obliquely rotated. The factor pattern matrix for this analysis is presented in Table 1.

The two factors were correlated .677 indicating that attitudes towards teachers and toward school in general are strongly related.

Only the first factor was considered for use in this study and some value judgements were applied in selecting items from it for inclusion in the scale. A number of items weighted above .3 on this "attitude toward school in general" factor and could have been included, but it was decided to take only the six most highly weighted items. These could be interpreted as a more specific scale about the perceived value, importance and usefulness of school.

The items were:

- * 1. I don't learn anything important at school.
- * 7. I see no use for what we study.
- 14. It is important to stay on at school.
- * 16. Going to school is a waste of time.
- * 22. If I had my choice I would not go to school.
- 23. I care about my schoolwork.
- * As these items were negatively worded responses to them were inverted.

TABLE 1
Factor Pattern Matrix

	Factor 1	Factor 2
Item 1	0.68688 *	-0.08312
Item 2	0.31343	0.46328
Item 3	0.28534	0.30112
Item 4	0.41655	0.13250
Item 5	0.53152	0.14973
Item 6	-0.06994	0.69161
Item 7	0.69420 *	-0.04038
Item 8	0.40258	0.34796
Item 9	0.18346	0.32394
Item 10	0.20827	0.57154
Item 11	-0.13131	0.78085
Item 12	0.22422	0.54791
Item 13	0.12318	0.39424
Item 14	0.54624 *	-0.01295
Item 15	0.42422	0.36627
Item 16	0.82140 *	-0.09986
Item 17	0.01257	0.67679
Item 18	0.52253	0.24003
Item 19	0.21745	0.47680
Item 20	-0.04565	0.64978
Item 21	0.38970	0.13968
Item 22	0.79096 *	-0.03151
Item 23	0.55045 *	0.17604

Although items 5 and 18 weighted above .5 they were not included. Item 5 - "I will be glad when I don't have to go to school any more" - was considered to be inappropriate as those students who thought school was important might still be looking forward to leaving school. Item 18 - "Most schoolwork is dull and boring" - seemed to be too specifically related to schoolwork to be of relevance to the scale. These two items were therefore ignored as they appeared to have little face validity.

The resulting scale and its composite items were subjected to a reliability analysis. The results of this analysis are given in Table 2 which presents the intercorrelations of the items, the alpha coefficient (which provides a measure of the reliability of the index), the effect on the alpha if each item was deleted, and the mean and standard deviation for the index.

TABLE 2
Reliability of the Importance of School Index

Intercorrelation of Items							Alpha if Item Deleted
Items	1	7	14	16	22	23	
1	-	.53	.30	.51	.45	.42	.82
7		-	.33	.52	.49	.42	.81
14			-	.42	.45	.43	.83
16				-	.61	.51	.79
22					-	.54	.80
23						-	.81
Alpha for the index = .84							
mean = 23.6							
standard deviation = 4.5							

Socioeconomic Status

Six variables were considered for inclusion in an index of socioeconomic status; all were family background measures. These included both fathers' and mothers' occupation measured on the BJZ occupational status scale (Broom *et. al.*, 1966), their level of education, the amount of unemployment experienced by the father, and a dichotomous variable measuring whether the mother worked or not. Similar to other studies (Polk, *et al.*, 1981) only the three variables: fathers' occupational status, fathers' education and mothers' education, were found to be related to a sufficient extent to justify the creation of a composite index. Table 3 presents the results of an analysis of the reliability of the scale.

TABLE 3

Reliability of the Index of Socioeconomic Status

Intercorrelation of variables							Alpha if item deleted (*included)
Variables:	1	2	3	4	5	6	
1. Fathers' job	-	.43	.30	.29	.02	.06	.74
2. Fathers' education		-	.58	.28	-.06	.05	.46
3. Mothers' education			-	.36	-.09	.02	.60
4. Mothers' job				-	.01	.01	*.70
5. Mother works?					-	.01	*.50
6. Fathers' unemployment						-	*.49
Reliability of SES index	=	.70					
mean	=	.06					
standard deviation	=	2.4					
N.B. items were standardised prior to analysis							

Although the inclusion of the occupational status of the mother did not reduce the reliability of the index, as only 46.2% of the cohort responded to this item (i.e. almost 54% of mothers were not employed) it was decided not to include it in the index.

APPENDIX 3

DISCRIMINANT FUNCTION ANALYSIS

Chapter 4 interpreted the findings of several discriminant function analyses conducted to elicit the characteristics which distinguish between the employment/education profiles of the panel. This appendix describes these analyses in more detail.

A discriminant function can be conceptualised as a continuum defined at either end by the specific characteristics of the panel most effective in separating the groups being considered. The standardised canonical discriminant function coefficients reported in this appendix ascribe the weight each variable contributes to defining these continua. The group centroids applicable to each function indicate the direction and separation of the groups along the described dimensions, while the classification analysis records the percentage of each group that can be correctly assigned using the calculated function and indicates the amount of overlap inherent in the groups, or conversely, their differentiation.

The analyses were carried out in two ways. Initially, all background variables were entered into the equation simultaneously and the effect of each was established having regard for all the others. That is, the independent contribution of each variable over and above that described by the other variables was obtained.

This form of analysis ignores the notions of precedence embodied in the nature of the variables and the developmental processes envisaged in this study. In line with this concept of precedence the variables were divided into blocks which were subjected to a more structured form of analysis. A stepwise technique was employed to select the most important variables from each block, working through the blocks in order of their designated priority. The mnemonics and block designations describing their priority are given in Table 1.

The dimensions described by both the simultaneous entry of variables and the structured analysis were ostensibly the same. Minor differences resulted in the weights accorded to some variables in line with the priority ascribed to their respective blocks. As many of the variables do not contribute in discriminating between the various groups and, as the structured analyses has more conceptual relevance, only the stepwise analyses are reported.

TABLE 1
Variables used in Discriminant Function Analyses

<u>Block 1</u>	<u>Individual characteristics</u>
SEX	- females were coded high
AUSSIE	- born in Australia and both parents born in Australia
ENG	- born in an English speaking country and both parents born in an English speaking country
ETH	- born in a non-English speaking country and both parents born in a non-English speaking country
ENGPAP	- born in Australia but at least one parent born in English speaking country
ETHPAR	- born in Australia but at least one parent born in a non-English speaking country
<u>Block 2</u>	<u>Home background variables</u>
SES	- index of socioeconomic status
PEASPI	- parental educational expectations
<u>Block 3</u>	<u>Systemic variables</u>
TECH	- attended a government technical school in 1980
HIGH	- attended a government high school in 1980
CATH	- attended a Catholic high school in 1980
IND	- attended an independent high school in 1980
METRO	- attended school in the metropolitan area in 1980
PROV	- attended school in a provincial city in 1980
CNTRY	- attended school in a country area in 1980
<u>Block 4</u>	<u>Social psychological attributes</u>
ACHVMT1	- self perception of level of academic ability
BJZIA	- status of work aspirations
SCLIMP	- attitude towards the importance of school

The first analysis used the six categories of the education/employment profile and produced two significant functions separating these groups. The standardised weights which define the function are presented in Table 2. Each variable weight represents the unique contribution of that variable to the function, with the effects of the variables from blocks of the same or higher priority held constant.

TABLE 2
Discriminant Function Analysis for Education/Employment Profile

Standardised Discriminant Function Weights			
	Function 1	Function 2	
Individual Characteristics			
SEX	.10	-.78*	
AUSSIE	-.13	.17	
ENG	-.10	.12	
ETH	.08	-.13	
ENGPAP	-.02	.11	
Home Background			
SES	.22*	.30*	
PEASPI	.46*	-.13	
Systemic Variables			
TECH	-.32*	.10	
CATH	.13	.10	
PROV	-.11	.08	
CNTRY	-.10	.10	
Social psychological attributes			
ACHVMNT1	.18	.04	
BUZIA	.19	.09	
SCLIMP	.34*	.34*	
N (weighted)	1624	1624	
Chi-square	796.5	116.1	
p	<.001	<.001	
Group Centroids			
	Function 1	Function 2	
Classification Analysis			
		N	% Correctly Classified
PTW not at school	-1.051	57	46
FTW not at school	-.944	261	18
NW not at school	-.894	192	12
FTW at school	-.671	112	53
NW at school	.523	762	38
PTW at school	.646	239	55

* Function weighted mainly on these variables.

Inspection of the group centroids indicates that substantial differences between the total education and work profile of the cohort revolved almost entirely around whether youth were still at school or not.

The classification analysis confirms this interpretation. Although the overall prediction of the function is low - 35% correctly classified overall - the distinction between attending and not attending school is more clear cut. 87% of school attenders were correctly classified as such and 47% of non-attenders. However if misclassification into the "apprentice" group is ignored the percentage of non-attenders correctly classified rises to 77%. Thus the function clearly distinguishes between those who are full-time students and those who are not.

Three further analyses were carried out in order to extract the characteristics most important in distinguishing between work related categories. Each analysis contained only 2 of the education/employment profiles categories.

The first looked at the distinguishing characteristics of part-time workers and non-workers not attending school but failed to extract a significant function.

The second analysed the part-time workers on the basis of the in-school/ out-of-school dichotomy. The results of this analysis were essentially the same as the first discriminant function for the full education/employment profile, i.e. delineating the characteristics of the "connected" and "disconnected" youth. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 3.

The final analysis sought to distinguish between in-school youth who were employed part-time and those who were not employed. Table 4 presents the results of this analysis which extracts a significant but weak distinction between the two groups. The function generally describes the dimension of "connectedness" propounded in this report and although both groups are "connected" the part-time workers would appear to be slightly more so.

TABLE 3

Discriminant Function Analysis for Part-time Workers In and Out of School

Standardised Discriminant Function Weights		Function	
Individual Characteristics:			
AUSSIE		-.19	
ENGPAP		.03	
Home Background:			
SES		.32	
PEASPI		.29	
Systemic Variables			
TECH		-.30	
CATH		.19	
CNTRY		-.12	
Social psychological attributes			
BJZ11A		.27	
SCLIMP		.45	
N		296	
Chi-square		122.97	
p		<.001	
		Classification Analysis	
		N	% Correctly Classified
Group Centroids			
PTW at school	.353	241	87
PTW not at school	-1.485	57	71

N.B. Total N for classification analysis and discriminant function analysis is not the same as cases with partially missing data were included in the classification.

TABLE 4

Discriminant Function Analysis for Part-time Workers and Non-workers
Attending School

Standardised Discriminant Function Weights		Function	
Individual Characteristics			
ENG		-.24	
ETH		.27	
ETHPAR		.59	
Family Background			
SES		-.27	
Systemic Variables			
TECH		.21	
CATH		-.32	
CNTRY		.29	
Social psychological			
SCLIMP		-.32	
N		1002	
Chi-square		26.93	
p		<.001	
		Classification Analysis	
		N	% Correctly Classified
Group Centroids			
PTW at school	-.295	243	60
NW at school	.093	779	41